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ABSTRACT

The document presents findings and discussion from a 1981 Australian workshop on language curriculum development for hearing impaired students. The first 11 papers, unattributed, address the following issues regarding development of a language curriculum: content, principles, levels of language, techniques and materials, features of conversational approaches in language programing, features of task-oriented approaches, and features of specific teaching approaches (especially at the syntactic level and emphasizing the Tate Oral English program. Test of Syntactic Abilities, and the Discourse Analysis Approach). Information on evaluation includes papers on evaluating instructional materials as well as student competence. Four author-contributed papers conclude the volume: "Developing Language in Young Disabled Children" (D. Power and G. Elias); *Issues Raised by Some Recent Research for the Teaching of Language to Hearing-Impaired Pupils" (A. Hollingshead); "Functional-Notional Approaches to Language Programming for Hearing-Impaired Pupils" (T. Hodgens); and "Comments on the Tate Oral English Program" (D. Power and G. Elias). (CL)

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ASPECTS OF A COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS

OCCASIONAL PAPER NUMBER FOUR

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ASPECTS OF A COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS : REPORT OF THE SECOND NATIONAL WORKSHOP ON LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS

NOVEMBER, 1981

Edited

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Funds for the Workshop were provided by the Schools Commission State Teacher Development Committees, the Centre for Human Development Studies of the then Mt Gravatt College of Advanced Education and the members of the Workshop themselves.

BRISBANE COLLEGE OF ADVANCED EDUCATION -
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AUGUST, 1982

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FOREWORD

The Workshop reported on in this volume was the second in a series on language curriculum development for hearing-impaired pupils, the first of which was held in 1980. Both Workshops were conducted by the Centre for Human Development Studies of the (then) Mt. Gravatt College of Advanced Education.[1] This second Workshop was held at the Burwood Regional Community Education Centre at the (then) Burwood State College.[2]

We are grateful for the assistance of the staff of the Centre and of the Institute of Special Education of Burwood State College (especially Ray Jeanes) for their assistance in mounting the Workshop.

The Workshop this time addressed itself to the details of conversational, situational and specific teaching approaches to language development for hearing-impaired pupils and the early part of this volume represents a distillation of the thoughts of the members of the Workshop on these matters. We have also had access to the unpublished Language Curriculum Statement of Glendonald School for Deaf Children, though the interpretation and presentation of its content is our own and does not necessarily represent the final policy or procedures of the school.

Three papers by Power and Elias, Hollingshead and Hodgens were presented at the Workshop, and are reproduced here, as is a paper by Power and Elias detailing some concerns with the Tate Oral English Scheme which we feel need to be considered by teachers embarking on its use.

We must take final responsibility for the unattributed material in this Report, though we were considerably assisted in the editorial process by Ray Jeanes, Kerry Pendavingh, Jock Power, Tess Hodgens, Joe Corbett, Caroline Banks, and Bernice Laing.

Once again, the members of the Workshop were supported by the various state Schools Commission Teacher Development Committees, and by themselves and their schools. Funds were also made available by the Centre for Human Development Studies. Sandra Canham did her usual excellent job of turning a difficult manuscript into impeccable type.

To all these organisations and individuals, as well as to all the members of the Workshop, our grateful thanks.

D.J.P.
M.A.H.
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August, 1982.

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[1] Now the Centre for Human Development Studies of the Brisbane C.A.E. - Mt Gravatt Campus (P.O. Box 82, Mt Gravatt, Qld. 4122).

[2] Now the Burwood Campus of Victoria College.

CONTENTS OF A COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS

We believe that the following outline represents the contents of a communication curriculum for hearing-impaired pupils. In keeping with the principle that each school or service should develop its own curriculum, we believe that this statement should be used as a basis for developing local curricula which will meet the individual needs of each service.

Each section may be expanded, making eventually a quite extensive set of documents, and we believe a project to give teachers and consultants an opportunity to develop such documents is an urgent need. Model documents could be produced by such a project that would enable services to adapt them to their own circumstances.

Contents of a Communication Curriculum

(a) General Principles

1. A statement of principles of the acquisition of communication competence in general.

2. A statement of the rationale for developing and/or teaching communication competence to hearing-impaired pupils particularly.

3. A statement of developmental sequences for communication competence at all levels: phonological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic; and under all aspects: linguistic, paralinguistic and non-linguistic.

(b) Resources

1. Environments in which and strategies by which communication competence may be developed.

2. A rationale from which materials and resources for comunication competence teaching could be developed.

3. A statement of the range of existing materials and resources for teaching various levels and aspects of communication competence and recommendations on areas needing further development.

(c) Implementation

1. General principles of development, implementation and evaluation of a communication competence curriculum at the school level.

2. A bibliography of further reading.

(d) Evaluation

1. A rationale for evaluating pupil learning of communication competence.

2. Existing techniques for evaluating communication competence at all levels and under all aspects.

PRINCIPLES FOR COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS

Preliminary Statement

We believe that curriculum design should establish a continuum of overlapping developmental programs, rather than units of study which may be interpreted as ends in themselves. Activities derived from such a curriculum should always be able to be seen as enjoyable and useful ends in their own right, as well as contributing to the child's further development. One model of such a curriculum design would be the so-called "spiral curriculum" which places emphasis on interaction and interdependence of its elements, with a continual return to previous materials at higher levels (Blackwell, Engen, Fischgrund and Zarcadoolas, 1978).

Communication Curriculum Philosophy

The aim of such a curriculum should be the development of each individual's communicative competence (Hymes, 1972; Breen and Candlin, 1979; Ingram, 1979). Inherent in this philosophy is that each child should have the opportunity to develop non-linguistic (gesture, body language, and facial expression characteristics), para-linguistic (particularly supra-segmental speech characteristics) and linguistic (structural, i.e. syntactic) features of communicative competence as found in his various communities (home, school, neighbourhood, etc.)

Approaches to communication curriculum development should be guided by features of the normal language acquisition process, with emphasis on conversational and communicative interaction with a variety of appropriate models, using authentic language in natural settings. In addition, specific language teaching programs will be needed at appropriate developmental levels (Ingram, 1979).

The communication curriculum must encourage ongoing and periodic evaluation of the child's progress and the program itself.

While we believe that every hearing-impaired child should have the opportunity to develop the oral competence of which he is capable, we value the sign language of the deaf, and feel that many deaf pupils will need to become "bi-cultural" (including being bilingual in Sign Language and English). These pupils should be allowed the opportunity for access to the deaf community and its language as well as the fullest possible access to the hearing community and its language. We believe that the principles of curriculum development, methods and materials development and application, and the process of evaluation are neutral and apply equally well to the use of oral or manually supplemented methods. Because we value English for all hearing-impaired children as necessary in the wider community, we believe that the method of input of language for those children who require manual communication should, for classroom learning purposes, be that form known as "Signed English". (This does not preclude the use of Sign Language or other forms of manual communication for those pupils whose needs may dictate it.) For the purposes of this report, Cued Speech may be seen as an oral method.

PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT.

We believe that the following principles should be characteristic of any communication curriculum for hearing-impaired children and that they should be taken into account in developing such a curriculum.

To be implemented effectively, these principles should be agreed to by the whole school staff. It is imperative for successful communication curriculum development and implementation that each school should have a statement of principles to follow and that these should be subject to regular review and evaluation. We would recommend that every school should have a "Communication Statement" in which these principles are available for public inspection and evaluation, and which should be sufficiently broad to cater for:

(a) The many different teaching styles and approaches of teachers. These principles should not in any way dictate specific teaching techniques. It is recognised that teachers must employ their individual expertise and experience to incorporate these principles in their teaching. Teachers with exceptional expertise in certain areas should be encouraged to share it with their colleagues.

(b) Individual needs of pupils.

Some basic principles underlying communication curriculum development are:

1. Communication experience begins from the earliest moments of life. Communicative competence is intertwined with and dependent upon cognitive and social development.

2. The child's attempts at communication should be valued when meaningful, irrespective of the "correctness" of their form.

3. Linguistic competence includes phonologic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic features. Communicative competence includes linguistic, non-linguistic and para-linguistic features. All these features of language and communication should be an interrelated part of the school communication curriculum.

4. Initially, hearing-impaired children should acquire language through a normal mother-child interaction model (conversational approach). If a child <u>of school age</u> is assessed as having a significant language delay, this conversational approach should be supplemented by systematic teaching based on principles of normal language development.

5. The curriculum must <u>concurrently</u> provide the following situations in which language acquisition can occur:

   - conversation
   - task oriented activities (in which language development is secondary to the activities themselves)
   - specific language teaching (in which activities are secondary to language development; see Figure 1)

6. The child's current linguistic competence is the starting point of any language program, and this competence needs to be continuously and systematically monitored by an adequate evaluation program. (See below for principles of evaluation.)

7. A curriculum should involve a dynamic process in which the child actively participates. Since language is acquired through use, child-based activities and first-hand experiences should be the major vehicle for development.

8. Phonological and syntactic development depend entirely on a firm foundation of meaning (semantics).

9. Given that language is best acquired in meaningful situations with competent models, opportunities should be devised (both within and outside the classroom) to widen access to authentic interactions with a variety of people, taking into consideration a child's level of competence and confidence.

10. Language has a variety of uses for communicative functions and different forms may be used to express the same functions when situations and communication partners vary, just as different functions may on some occasions be expressed by the same form. It is important that children acquire these pragmatic features of language.

Level	Language Learning Situations		
	Conversation	Task Oriented	Specific Teaching
Phonological			
Syntactic			
Semantic			
Pragmatic			

Figure 1: Components of a communication curriculum for hearing-impaired pupils.

(It should be noted that although we have, in Figure 1, separated out the levels of language, in real life they all come together in pragmatics - the use of language. It is this factor which makes it essential that language learning situations be developed which are as close to authentic settings as possible. However, particularly in the "specific teaching" mode, attention can be devoted to particular elements of the various levels to ensure that children are exposed to them, because (as Power and Hollingshead, 1978, have pointed out) the use of "uncontrolled" conversation approaches only means that the low frequency, particular complexity, or the unstressed nature of some language elements may mean that deaf children find them very difficult to acquire. This provides the justification for specialised teaching of such particular elements.)

11. It must be noted that teachers play many roles in the course of their activities each day. A continuum of such activities can be conceived from the nurturing, encouraging, facilitating roles to instructing, judging and refereeing. Movement along this continuum means changes in control, power and authority in the relationship between teachers and pupils.

    All teachers need to be able to move freely and appropriately among various roles, but there is a danger that some teachers may operate only within a very narrow range on this continuum. In particular, many teachers remain for too much of their time near the controlling, teacher-centred end of the role continuum, and as a consequence, children have fewer opportunities to initiate and control their own learning and to respond spontaneously, with a consequent deleterious effect on their development of a wide range of communication skills. Teachers should be on guard against this happening, and should endeavour to provide a wide range of settings for pupil learning from "free" conversation to directed, controlled specific teaching/learning activities.

We now proceed to develop some principles for the application of the elements in Figure 1.

LEVELS OF LANGUAGE WHICH NEED TO BE CONSIDERED IN A LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Phonological

Phonological aspects of language are those to do with its sound system. Traditionally, the phonological system has been divided up into two major aspects - articulatory factors and supra-segmental (paralinguistic) factors. Articulatory factors are those to do with the pronunciation of the individual sounds of the language, and the supra-segmental factors are those to do with those aspects of the sound system which carry across more than one phoneme or word. These latter factors include such things as stress, juncture, intonation, timing, and so forth.

We have little to say about the phonologial aspects of communication competence in this Report, except to point out that traditionally teachers of the hearing-impaired have probably been too concerned with articulation aspects of the phonological system, and not enough with the supra-segmental aspects. To further compound the problem, articulation teaching has over-emphasised the teaching of sounds in isolation, while ignoring the importance of transitions between sounds. This balance has recently been redressed in modern theoretical and practical writing. This is important because it is the supra-segmental characteritics of speech which have a profound effect on intelligibility and which also give much of the meaning to communication and this fact should be reflected in our teaching.

For detailed examination of the development of the phonological aspects of communication competence we would refer readers to such modern texts as Ling (1976), Calvert and Silverman (1975) and Iverson, Adamson and Cronin (1981).

Syntactic

The syntactic level of communication competence has always been a main focus of teachers of the hearing-impaired. This is reasonable, in that in many respects, the disability of hearing impairment has its major impact upon the development of syntactic expression in the standard vernacular of the surrounding hearing community. However, the emphasis upon syntax teaching has often been at the expense of the semantic and pragmatic levels, and we hope that the stresses we place in this Report will do something to redress this balance. However, it is still of major importance to develop in and teach syntax to hearing impaired pupils in each of the three learning situations we have shown in Figure 1.

Most of the materials development and evaluation techniques which we consider in this report are at the syntactic level, and we would refer to the reader to detailed consideration of these matters herein. Surveys of the syntactic elements of English are now widely available, and we would refer to Leech and Svartvik (1975) and Russell, Quigley, and Power (1976) among others. The series of volumes in the TSA Syntax Program edited by Quigley and Power (1979-81) also provide useful summary tables of major aspects of English syntax, and their normal development in hearing and hearing- impaired children.

Semantic

Various meanings of "semantics" appear in the literature, from the interaction of lexis (vocabulary) and syntax to produce sentence meaning, to a general conceptualisation of the world, and its expression in such language categories as mass/ count nouns, transitive/intransitive verbs, comparison, etc., to an even broader concept of human interaction with the physical world in a Piagetian sense, e.g., that released objects fall, etc.

We can say little about such matters here, except to note that it may not be necessary to "teach" in this area as far as non-intellectually handicapped hearing-impaired children are concerned, as their cognitive and linguistic interaction with the world will generally provide them with an adequate semantic basis for their language - provided that their early (and continuing) experience of the world and people is not so constricted as to reduce the materials available for them to work on. (The particular problems in this area posed for children who are intellectually handicapped as well as hearing-impaired, we do not have the space to address. We note that further attention should be given to this matter.)

We say little in this Report about that aspect of semantics that we have called "lexis" - the vocabulary needed to construct sentences. As with most aspects of language, hearing-impaired pupils have problems in developing a sufficiently broad vocabulary to express their meanings and interpretations of the world.

The particular problems posed in this area were not considered during the Workshop. We note in general that vocabulary should not be taught out of a context of authentic experience and need, but should emerge naturally from the child's interactions with the world, including (at appropriate levels) the world of academic learning both from oral and visual media and from books.

We would recommend that considerably more work be done in this area.

Pragmatic

This level of language is the one that is generally least understood and hence has not been well developed in teaching hearing-impaired pupils because it has not been generally brought to the awareness of teachers. It may well be that hearing- impaired pupils' competence is well developed at the pragmatic level of language as, despite a lack of research, it is our impression that deaf individuals, both children and adults, seem to cope quite well in this respect for the ordinary purposes of daily life. However, we believe that there is still considerable room for improvement as it is at this level of language: language in use, at which all the preceding aspects of language come together to make language functional for the user.

The recent literature has begun to provide descriptions of the pragmatic level of language which will be useful in developing materials for teaching these to hearing-impaired pupils, and we would refer readers to the work of Rees (1978), Halliday (1975), Tough (1976) and Walker (n.d.). Halliday, in particular, provides an interesting description of the development of pragmatic abilities in language, which

while largely focussed on the semantic level, is expressive of the kinds of areas that need to be covered at this level. (It should be noted that much of the pragmatic and semantic level of language is not expressed in linguistic form, but is largely non-linguistic, i.e., is carried by such aspects of the communication code as gesture, facial expression, body stance and tone, and so forth.) However, there is still a linguistic element at this level, and we provide Halliday's "Phase One" description of early functional use of language as an example of the kinds of areas which need to be considered:

1. The instructional, or the "I want" function. This is the function of language to get for the child objects and services that satisfy his needs.

2. The regulatory, or the "Do as I tell you" function. This is the function of language to get someone to do something and is different from an instrumental function in focusing on the agent rather than on the object.

3. The interactional, or the "Me and you" function. In this function the child uses language to interact with the important others on his environment.

4. The personal, or the "Here I come" function. This is language used to express the self and to include the speaker in the speech event.

5. The heuristic, or the "Tell me why" function. This is used to explore the environment and to learn and is represented in its earliest appearances by the request for names of objects.

6. The imaginative, or the "Let's pretend" function. This is using language to create a make-believe environment, ranging from sound play to story telling and eventually the uses of language as an art form.

7. The representational, or "I've got something to tell you" function, which has to do with communicating information, describing, etc.

"Real-life language usage" needs to be seen in a context of situations, functions, and "talk"

Situations

A. Frequency
   Talking to:
   1. Intimate contact
      - family
      - friends
      - workmates

   2. Familiar contact
      - buying things in a shop
      - travelling on transport
      - going to the pictures
      - talking to neighbours/club members, etc.

3. Periodic contact
   - talking to a stranger
   - visiting the doctor
   - talking to the boss

4. Novel contact
   - handling salesmen (car insurance, real estate, etc.)

B Functions

1. Expressive, e.g.,
   - making sense of ourselves
   - helping in understanding the world

2. Controlling, e.g.,
   - bludgeoning and abusing people
   - keeping people at bay
   - regulating and controlling
   - persuading
   - deceiving

3. Exchange, e.g.,
   - encouraging
   - justifying
   - more rarely: communicating facts from one to another
   - even more rarely: conveying information to people who already have it.

C Types of talk

a. - questioning
   - responding
   - spontaneous commenting

b. - naming or referring
   - expressing: feelings
     : needs
     : preferences
     : ideas
   - stating intentions
   - thinking aloud (private speech)
   - retelling
   - relating past experiences
   - describing
   - explaining
   - relaying messages
   - discussing
   - arguing
   - denying
   - rejecting

c. - social exchanges: greeting
     : farewelling
     : introducing
     : inviting
     : thanking
     : requesting

- negotiating
- predicting events
- justifying
- coaching
- criticising
- judging
- interviewing
- planning
- encouraging
- discouraging
- prohibiting
- reasoning
- arguing logically

Similar analyses have been made by Tough (1976) and Walker (n.d.). We provide Walker's analysis as another example of the kind of "discourse functions" that need to be considered as necessary parts of the communication repetoire of hearing-impaired people, and which, hence, need to be included in a communication curriculum (Figure 2).

We note elsewhere that these aspects of the communication curriculum are not well developed, and much attention needs to be devoted to techniques for teaching and evaluating hearing-impaired pupils' competence in this area. We would suggest that collection of data along the lines of the "Daily Round Communication Activities Collection" (Power, 1981; Appendix A) would be a useful beginning to determine the needs in this area, and to evaluate progress.

In conclusion, we would note that although it is possible to analyse out these levels of communication competence, in real-life they are inseparable, and converge upon the pragmatic use of language in authentic settings. They all interact with one another, to the extent that the phonological is largely determined by the interaction of syntax and semantics, and so forth. This is the major reason why in the end all language learning situations involve conversation, as in conversation all levels of communication are most likely to be used together to produce and comprehend authentic communications.

TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS FOR A COMMUNICATION CURRICULUM

In Figures 3 and 4 we have attempted to show examples of current materials available for teaching and developing aspects of language under each of the three approaches to communication development and evaluation, and the blank boxes in those figures are indicative of the areas where considerably more research and materials and methods development need to be done.

It will be noted that in Figures 3 and 4 we draw distinctions among these "aspects" of communication: non- linguistic, para-linguistic, and linguistic.

The non-linguistic aspects of language, as we use the term in this report, refer to such aspects as gesture, stance, body tone, facial expression, (and even dress), and other such "non-vocal" aspects of communication. (A particularly interesting compendium of this area is provided by Morris, 1977.)

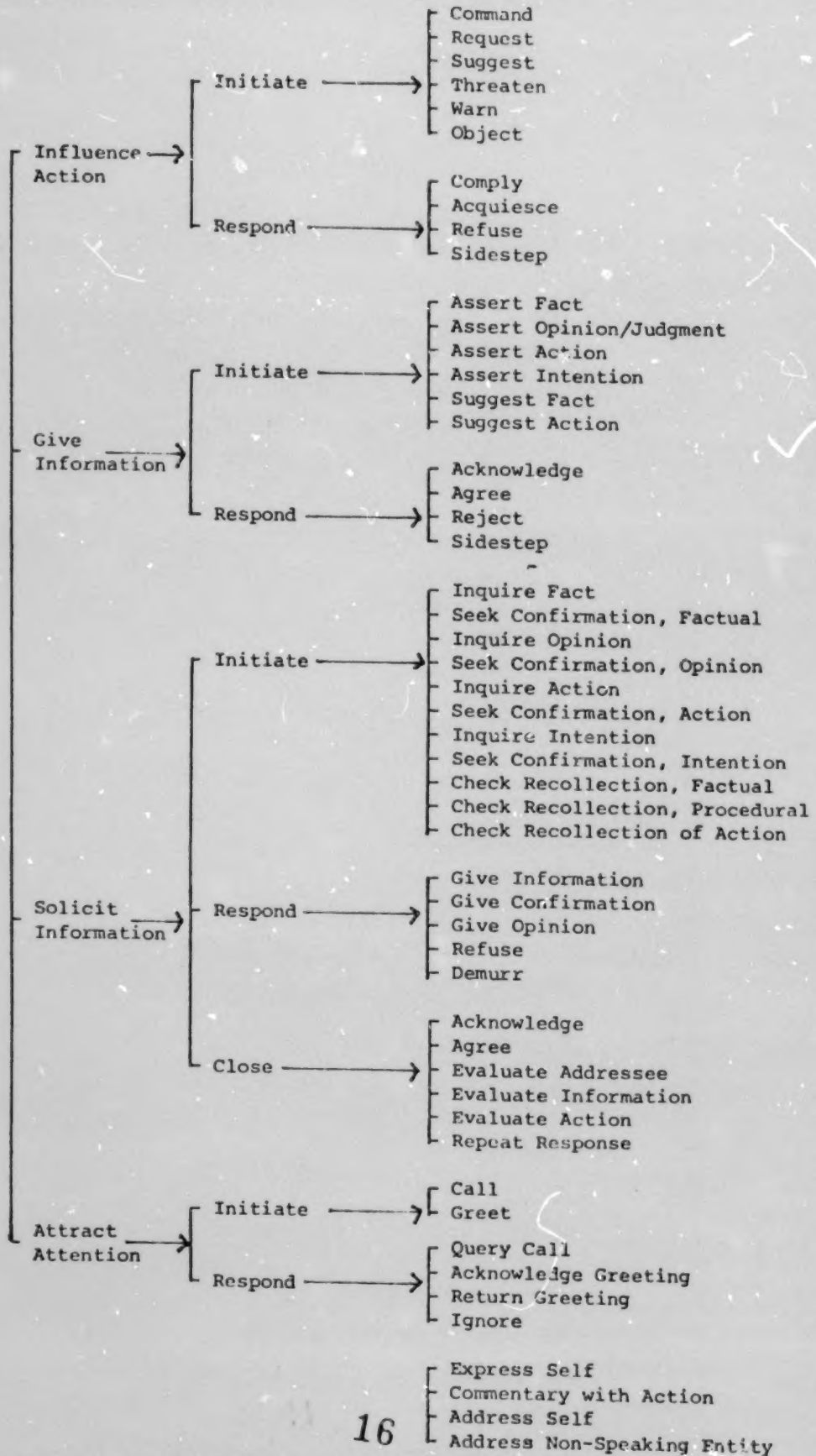


Figure 2 : A system of analysis of language functions (Following Walker, n.d.)

Para-linguistic aspects are concerned essentially with the suprasegmental aspects of communication which we have mentioned above in talking about phonology.

Linguistic aspects are carried essentially by the phonology, syntax and semantics of the communication, and we have also examined these in some detail above.

Level	Aspect	Communication Learning Situations		
		Conversation	Task Oriented Learning	Specific Teaching
Phonological	Non-Linguistic			
	Para-Linguistic			Ling
	Linguistic			Ling
Syntactic	Non-linguistic			
	Para-linguistic			
	Linguistic			Tate, TSA Workbooks, Apple Tree, Fromberg, etc. Blackwell et al.
Semantic	Non-linguistic			TSA Activities Blackwell et al.
	Para-Linguistic			TSA Activities Blackwell et al.
	Linguistic			T.S.A. workbook Activities Blackwell et al. Tate
Pragmatic	Non-Linguistic			
	Para-Linguistic			
	Linguistic			TSA Activities

Figure 3: Techniques and Materials Available for Communication Competence Development

Level	Aspect	Communication Evaluation Situations		
		Conversation	Task Oriented Learning	Specific Teaching
Phonological	Non-Linguistic			
	Para-Linguistic			Ling
	Linguistic			Ling
Syntactic	Non-Linguistic			
	Para-Linguistic			
	Linguistic		LARSP, Tyack & Gottsleben, Lee	Tate, TSA, GAEL
Semantic	Non-Linguistic			
	Para-Linguistic			
	Linguistic			
Pragmatic	Non-Linguistic			
	Para-Linguistic			
	Linguistic			Miller, Power & Hollingshead

Figure 4: Techniques Available for Communication Competence Evaluation

FEATURES OF CONVERSATIONAL APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING

As we have noted above, we believe that conversation must be the essential basis of developing language in hearing-impaired children because it is only in conversation that all aspects of language use come together in authentic use settings (c.f. Van Uden, 1977, pp.177-178.)

However, there are some important differences between our approach and that of Van Uden, and some comparisons are instructive. For example, it is clear that Van Uden distinguishes between two kinds of "conversation" in classrooms (1977, Ch.V). One is the formal conversation of the "language period" which may be "reflected" back to the child and "corrected" in quite formal ways. This is used as a basis for formal grammatical teaching and the seeking out of similar sentences by analogy, and may eventually be written down and corrected by grammatical meta-language (via "reconstructing, constructing and reflecting exercises", p.233; and "codes", p.247).

The other is the incidental conversation that surrounds the child in his daily routine in the classroom. It seems to us that it is this latter situation in which the natural features of everyday conversation are to be found.

For example, Van Uden insists on the pupil repeating back the correct version of what he initially said "incorrectly". In normal conversation, it is rare that one member is expected to repeat what he said (or, rather, "should have said") if his partner clearly understood what was meant - and this is what Van Uden seems to be advocating for the "formal language lesson". There are problems which could arise with such an approach: children may easily become frustrated when emphasis is thus shifted from what they mean (i.e., the content of the communication), to the form of what they said (i.e., the way they express their meaning).

Again, the length of the sentence reflected back to the child will usually be more complex and of greater length than his initial utterance. If there is too big a gap in this respect, the child may be reduced to rote imitation of the teacher's sentence, without this having any real impact on his language learning.

Further, the procedure of expecting the child to use standard forms from the beginning runs counter to the theoretical and research evidence that shows that children learn language by a process of more and more closely approximating to the language that surrounds them - that they universally appear to go through stages in the discovery of the rules for the structure of their language, and only after a number of stages of closer and closer approximation to the target is it finally achieved.

Thus, this aspect of Van Uden's approach is closer to our "specific teaching" level rather than "conversation", and this distinction needs to be clearly borne in mind.

We would also not advocate the use of grammatical metalanguage and diagrammatic analysis as an aid (except perhaps at the highest levels in a study of language itself), as we feel that there is no evidence for the utility of such aids in promoting language growth over and above the conversational and authentic specific teaching and activities which we propose.

With these reservations, we support Van Uden's general "maternal reflective/conversational" approach and believe the following features to be central to any such (c.f. also Van Uden, 1980).

1. Communication is both the foundation and the process of language development, as well as its objective.

2. All features of language use emerge in conversation.

3. Conversation can only occur when participants have the social or personal need to exchange ideas with one another.

4. Conversation must be an active two-way process involving both participants.

5. Participants must accept communication as a two-way process. (This is particularly important in teacher-pupil conversations.)

6. It is useful to make a distinction between conversation and discussion. Conversation is socially oriented, and follows directions determined by the interaction of those conversing; discussion is goal oriented towards ends often predetermined by the aims of those taking part in the discussion.

7. Research shows that conversation is the vehicle for language learning and therefore teachers must take care to provide conditions for the children to so learn language.

Features of a Conversation.

1. The pupil's contribution to conversation must be equally valued with the teacher's.

2. Conversation has certain conventions which must be observed; such as the rules for turn-taking, initiating and changing topics, opening and closing conversations, and so forth. Some of these conventions are non-linguistic and para- linguistic, and include ones at the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic levels (Kretschmer and Kretschmer, 1978).

3. Both the content and the conduct of conversation should be open to negotiation between the individuals taking part, and stem from ideas that emerge spontaneously during the conversational interaction, and hence conversations cannot be preplanned.

4. Conversations should be conducted within the generally accepted conventions of language use of the community, including colloquial and eliptic language where appropriate.

5. The degree of involvement in the conversation can range from minimal routines through to extended discourse about intimate personal matters.

6. The more intimate the relationships between conversational partners the less the need for linguistic features of communication (i.e., a syntactically abbreviated "intimate "dialect" emerges).

7. Hence, teachers should display for pupils the appropriate conventions of conversational communication, e.g., empathy, genuineness, tact, sensitivity, trust/confidentiality, and body language, etc. (At times, and particularly with older pupils, discussion of these aspects of communication will be necessary and appropriate.)

The Role of the Teacher in Conversation.

1. The teacher needs to be a caring person who is sensitive to children's needs for nurturance, acceptance, approval, etc.

2. The teacher needs to be a listener, with his major attention focussed on the meaning of the child's utterances, not their form.

3. The teacher needs to use all appropriate opportunities available for short incidental conversations throughout the day. The teacher should be aware that even in the most formal and "traditional" classroom settings, incidental conversation as a vehicle for language learning is occurring all the time.

4. The teacher needs to ensure that time and conditions are created in which longer spontaneous conversations can take place so as to ensure that pupils are exposed to all the features of language available in conversation.

5. The teacher's task needs to focus on being a participator/facilitator rather than only a director/controller, because this latter role is to a large extent incompatible with that of the principles and features of conversational approaches noted above.

6. The teacher's role as an active participant in conversations should incorporate the following strategies:

    1. Listening
    2. Facilitating
    3. Participating in dialogue
    4. Interpreting
    5. Contributing
    6. Counselling
    7. Referring
    8. Nurturing
    9. Commentating
    10. Questioning
    11. Caring
    12. Accepting
    13. Providing feedback
    14. Innovating
    15. Advising

The teacher's role will also include instructing, reproving, controlling, warning and interrogating, but these are not really "conversational" in nature.

Techniques for Maximizing Language Learning in Conversational Approaches.

Both theoretical and research evidence of the last fifteen years or so underlines the necessity of ample exposure to conversation about immediately meaningful and interesting events with a more mature speaker as being the normal language acquisition process. As will be obvious from what we have said already, we hold the general position that, mutatis mutandis, using such approaches with hearing-impaired children as closely as their disability will allow optimizes their development of adequate communication skills also.

A considerable amount is now known about the structure of conversation between primary care givers and young children (e.g. Snow and Ferguson, 1977; Schiefelbusch, 1978a; Waterson and Snow, 1978) and the application of such principles to hearing-impaired children (Van Uden, 1977; Power, 1975; Cross, Morris and Neinhuys, 1980; Schiefelbusch, 1978b) as well as such earlier formulations as Groht (1958). There is not space in this report to provide a detailed consideration of these matters, and we would refer the reader to the above sources.

However, a couple of important issues should be mentioned. One is the place of reading and writing in conversational approaches. In this area, we part company somewhat from Van Uden, who advocates the use of reading/writing from a quite early age as a method of stabilizing and providing practice in language forms, as well as being an accurate input method to make up the large arrears that this disability imposes on the hearing-impaired child.

At the early stages, we would feel that reading/writing is not a satisfactory language development approach. The structure, conventions, and cognitive demands of reading are entirely different from those of oral colloquial conversational language, and we believe that the emphasis we have placed in this report on the importance of para-linguistic and non-linguistic features in the acquisition of communication skills precludes the early use of reading/writing for this purpose (Power, 1975).

It is clear that hearing children should have a well-developed oral language upon which to base their reading, and we believe the same to be true of hearing-impaired children. We therefore believe that reading should not be used for early language development, but should be introduced even later than is usual with hearing children, for its ordinary purposes of gaining pleasure and information.

The whole area of reading for hearing-impaired pupils appears to be undergoing a reappraisal, and we are of the opinion that a whole new era of research may change our approaches considerably in this area (Ewoldt, 1977).

The other point that needs to be made is that we believe conversational approaches need not be tied to any particular communication method, and that they certainly are not the preserve of oral-aural-only approaches.

Conversational techniques can be used via any method of communication - pure oral-aural, Cued Speech, Sign Language,

fingerspelling, Signed English, and so forth. However, we believe that it is desirable (and possible) to teach all non-multiply handicapped deaf pupils in English, and if some form of manual communication is to be used, we would advocate one that enables the syntax of English to be reproduced on the hands, e.g., Signed English.

In conclusion, Brown's statement in his Introduction to Snow and Ferguson (1977) best sums up the spirit of our approach. Speaking of an answer to the question, "How can a concerned mother facilitate her child's learning of language?", he says:

> My answer, after reading this book, is as follows: 'Believe that your child can understand more than he or she can say, and seek, above all, to communicate. To understand and be understood. To keep your minds fixed on the same target. In doing that, you will, without thinking about it, make 100 or maybe 1000 alterations in your speech and action. Do not try to practice them as such. There is no set of rules of how to talk to a child that can even approach what you unconsciously know. If you concentrate on communicating everything else will follow (p.26; emphasis added).'

We believe that the same advice is valid for teachers of hearing-impaired children (Power, Elias & Hyde, 1981).

It must be recognised that the apparent informality and lack of structure and teacher control within conversational learning environments is a legitimate and very demanding aspect of the work of a teacher of the hearing-impaired. This kind of work maximally enables the child to become a communicating member of society, as well as being the foundation for all future learning, even of traditional school subjects. Situations for Developing Conversational Language.

Activities should include:-

Sharing experiences - interesting happenings.
Conversing - interchange of ideas; having a genuine need to share ideas, experiences, and aspirations.

Through such experiences one individual comes to know another. The following situations are provided to develop further thinking along the lines suggested.

1. Early morning routines - the organisational characteristics of hearing-aid checks, unpacking bags, etc. provide the opportunity for pupils to mill around and freely interchange ideas, to initiate and continue conversations both with the teacher and other adults present, or among themselves.

2. Creative activities such as painting, where activity may trigger ideas to talk about, provide many opportunities for conversation.

3. Play, role play, and drama are activities in which the characters creatively converse in settings devised by the children. Note the role fantasy may play here.

4. Informal and unplanned interchanges throughout the day are very good opportunities for conversation.

5. Regular school lunch periods or special occasions such as picnics, classroom parties, etc., may be utilized also.

6. Contrived situations, where, for example, the teacher makes a change in the classroom (e.g., who sits with whom), are also valuable in providing motivation for conversations. Undemanding classroom activities and outlines which leave space for conversation should also be regularly made available to pupils.

7. Free-choice learning situations where the pupils relax and conversation flows should be more often used. Teachers and pupils are free to move around and engage in conversation or other activities.

"Conversation Starters"

The following suggestions are offered as situations which are useful in generating genuine conversations among teachers and pupils. Teachers can easily adapt these to their own needs and extend the list as suggested by local circumstances. It should be noted that, as pointed out in the next section, it is all too easy for these situations to deteriorate into teacher-controlled stereotyped routines, and great care must be taken to avoid this. Recent research is beginning to provide ways in which this may be done (Wood, Wood, Griffiths, Howarth & Howarth, in press; Wood and Wood, 1981).

1. Age-related topics of interest.

2. Home-school books as lead-in to child experiences or interests - as perceived by parent/teacher. If child chooses topics he dictates to parent/teacher or draws.

3. Bring interesting objects into classroom and wait for comments: Attention getters - shoe on roof, "Wacky Wednesday", etc.

4. Recalling group activities incidentally in conversation.

5. Casual comment that needs expanding: "Will you die?"

6. Imaginary tales.

7. From current events: T.V., newspaper, recalling events of interest, "Royal Wedding", etc.

8. Teacher-experienced topics - selected as interests of children - unusual occurrences.

9. The "outsider" - a workman. Changes in environment, etc.

10. Distractions renamed: "Another class's activity".

11. Games: True or False.

12. Activity sessions in which children engage in conversation while working at a task.

13. Personal change - new hair-do, broken arm - note that many topics which arise spontaneously in conversation may go on to become units of work.

14. Conversation after a story-telling session, e.g., relating the topic back to personal experience.

15. Selecting conversation topics that inevitably lead to "How? Why is it so?"

16. Intrusion into a game.

17. Allowing yourself to be included, n.b., Functions - questions are more powerful conversation starters than comments because questions require a response. Choice questions (yes/no) are more limited than product questions (wh) which are more limited than process questions (e.g., How? Why?).

Things to help:

Transparent umbrella
broken door knob
bent key
no key - lost
item of clothing (obviously too small - baby bonnet)
bathers in the middle of winter
signs
half burnt candle
old photographs
old newsbooks
cartoons
conversation and thought bubbles
situation squares
books
empty suitcase (don't tell what's inside).

Events/happenings to help:

Noises (what they are or might be)
Burst water main
Accidents
Routines (rules for living)
Teacher indulging in private activity
Removing child's lunch and replace it with something else
Strikes
Need to convey information to parents or teachers who don't know (Use home/school books with care)

Comments to help:

Message written on board
Message in a bottle
Stories - ghosts etc.
Rules
Competitive situations
Whisper to someone
Tell an outsider what has happened
Follow up things you know children have done

Games to help:

What happened on the way to school?
Guessing

Inhibitors:

Just as the above can be judiciously used to initiate and maintain conversations, so there are teacher activities which inhibit conversation and we present a few as examples of "What not to do".

1. "Tell me later". "Don't be silly".
2. Insist on correct syntax
3. Constantly correct speech
4. Show disinterest by body language
5. Fail to understand (more important for one-to-one)
6. Insist on speech, don't allow gesture/drawing
7. Induce fear of ridicule among strangers
8. Unpopularity: no-one will listen to me!
9. Butt in
10. Induce fear of failure

etc., etc. .....

Points to Keep in Mind

1. The structured, sequenced monologues of some "Stand up and say your News" lessons is the very antithesis of conversation. Additionally, the authenticity and adherence to real-life pragmatic conventions of such lessons are doubtful, as they often involve retelling, with the teacher and children already acquainted with the "News".

2. Conversation progresses in complexity from one-to-one, through one-to-two to small-group situations. Note also the continuum of conversing with familiar persons to conversing with a stranger, and the importance and use of different registers and presuppositions in those settings. All of these conditions need to be planned for by the teacher so that pupils are exposed to them.

3. The pragmatics of each conversational situation needs to be analysed so that development takes place, i.e., when the teacher joins the group, children need to know that the communication mode should be understandable to the new member and that he is made aware of the preceding interchange.

4. When teachers are conversing in front of children who rely on supplementary modes of communication, the teachers should always use the supplements.

5. Teachers should demonstrate all the social conventions of conversation, for example:

   Was it a genuine two-way process? Did you

   - learn something about each other?
   - have empathy with each other?
   - maintain normal eye contact?
   - maintain normal stance and body language?

   Did you both share the initiation of topic change?

   Were you genuine?

   Were you tactful?

Was the topic appropriate? (Did you unnecessarily intrude on on areas of privacy?)

Sensitivity - trust - confidence (When necessary, were these maintained in the conversation?)

The Role of Pupil-Pupil Conversation

Teachers of the hearing-impaired have often been concerned that conversation among pupils in non-Standard English will "reinforce" their non-Standard usages ("errors"). We believe that modern evidence indicates that this is not the case, because pupils are not "making errors" which will be reinforced by non-correction or even acceptance of peers (or, indeed, of teachers), but are generating language on the basis of a different, but still rule-governed competence, which is affected mainly by the reflective feedback of more mature speakers. We therefore believe that child-child conversation is unlikely to harm pupils' language development at the phonological and syntactic levels, but that children also do need opportunity to interact with more mature speakers.

We would further say that pupil-pupil talk is important and should be encouraged, because it gives opportunities for practice in using semantic and pragmatic aspects of conversation, even though the phonological and syntactic aspects may still be imperfect.

FEATURES OF TASK-ORIENTED APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING

As discussed above, conversation is the ideal way of developing all aspects of communication skills, but our responsibilities as teachers dictate that we should cover the traditional curriculum areas. Conversations can certainly take place during lessons in these areas, but we feel that there are particular uses of these lessons for communication development via what we have called "task-oriented" approaches to programming, and we present here some initial thoughts on this matter.

The major feature of such approaches is that, while the content subject lesson or activity remains central, it can be used as a vehicle for both specific and general advancement of communication skills.

Irrespective of whether a teacher uses an integrated studies program, traditional subject areas, or "new curriculum" areas, a variety of class activities will result. In such activities a variety of tasks is carried out. In each case, it is the task itself that determines the language that is used. It is through language use that tasks are accomplished - hence language use flows across all areas of the curriculum.

The language used needs to be authentic. To be authentic it needs to be used spontaneously. Very often when a teacher decides that an aspect of language needs to be taught, an activity is used to teach it. Often this results in the inappropriate use of language. Care needs to be taken to ensure that the whole lesson is authentic, that the language used is appropriate. ("Is that what is usually said when that kind of activity is undertaken?")

It is important in a task-oriented situation that the actual language used is determined by what is being done. (This holds whether the program is organized around "3 R's/Basics"; traditional curriculum areas; themes and topics; "new curriculum" areas; or "real life" situations, etc.) Of course, there are some activities and topics that naturally lead to the use of certain language forms, e.g., a discussion of rules leads to the use of negatives, an investigation of how commodities are produced to the use of passive, the following of recipes to imperatives, and so forth.

Language used in a particular sitaution can be viewed in terms of:-
content - what is talked about
form - what is said or written
function - purpose or strategic value
notions - the ideas behind the words

As teachers of the deaf we have been most concerned with form. We must go back to both the ideas behind the words (notions) and the purposes for which language is used (functions), and teach more to those rather than too much concentrating on teaching the forms language takes.

In the task oriented teaching situation all the content that is normally covered in schools is presented, i.e., maths, social studies, etc. What needs to be developed for this area is a model or approach for teachers to apply to their materials where the emphasis is on function.

What is the child really learning?

What are the ideas involved in the lesson?

The role of form in language which is normally emphasised by teachers of the deaf is reversed. Hence the language that comes out of the lesson is secondary. The main emphasis is on authentic involvement in the learning activity.

Rationale for the Development of a Task-Oriented Component of the Language Curriculum:

Most of what goes on in school is not "conversation". It is also not specific language teaching (i.e., taking a specific aspect of language that children have not learned and teaching it). We have said that we think that school programs should change to accommodate much more conversational interaction, but we have also said that in most cases some specific teaching sessions are advisable for large parts of the school day. We acknowledge that most of what goes on in school is valuable but that it has a different emphasis from these other two areas. Hence we feel the need to document and include what is involved in the best of "regular class programs and lessons", and its implications for communication development.

To ensure that we have a true language or communication program "Across the Curriculum" approach, we need to take into consideration factors related to the kinds of contexts that foster learning and to do this we need to consider how children learn.

Much of a child's school day can be spent either in "ring-master" sessions, when we know that the most appropriate learning contexts are

not "chalk and talk", or in individual work, when the most appropriate learning contexts are not available. It seems that a consideration of the range of contexts that occur within schools will result in the advocation of some changes in the kinds of interactions that go on in classrooms.

In order to elaborate on reasons for changing interaction patterns in classrooms we need to provide teachers with tools for analysing what is being accomplished in their classrooms in terms of communicative learning. Teachers need a focussed attack to provide a balance of classroom activities necessary to ensure that children can learn in contexts that foster communication.

To meet the children's learning needs, there will inevitably be a role-change for teachers as they shift from one type of interaction to another throughout the school day.

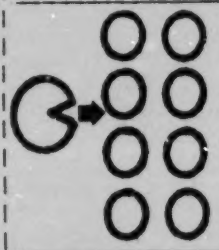
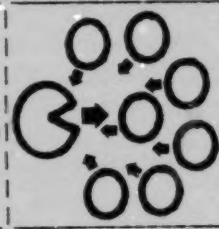
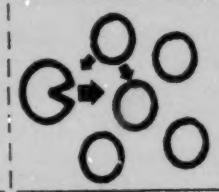
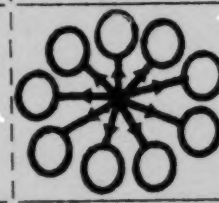
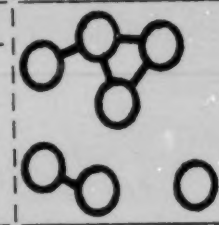
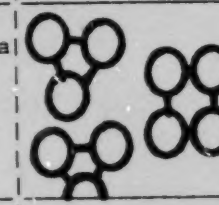
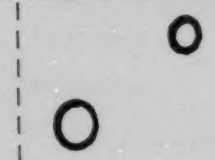
METHOD	CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS	PATTERN OF PARTICIPATION	SPECIAL USEFULNESS	LIMITATIONS
Talk, story, film or T.V	Information giving		Systematic presentation of knowledge	Little opportunity for the 'Audience' to participate
Formal lesson	Information giving followed by questions to (a) clarify (b) assess		Specific information can be given on particular aspects of a subject or topic	Formality - lack of opportunity to interchange ideas
Individual presentations	A variety of ideas, topics are presented		Different point of view, or different interests stimulate discussion later	May not hold interest of audience. Presentation may overshadow the content
Group Discussion	High degree of group participation		Pooling of ideas, experiences and knowledge	Useful mainly with small groups
Project work, Excursions, Camps	Working together on a group project or problem		Widens personal experience	Requires extra time and energy in planning
Small group work	Investigating a problem or engaging in a task co-operatively		Brings together ideas and knowledge from the group on one problem	Final contributions may not be very deep or well organised
Individual work	Task is directed to individual needs		Ensures high motivation	May become diffuse; idiosyncratic

Figure 5. Some possible classroom teacher-pupils interaction patterns (following Mulford, 1978).

Figure 5 shows patterns of classroom interaction which will enable teachers to consider both the range of possible interaction patterns and the frequency with which each is used in the classroom. Video and audio recordings can also be used to analyse such factors as "teacher talk", individual children's performances and the general milieu of the communication situation (Wood et al., in press; Wood and Wood, 1981).

- Teachers need a wide range of strategies for planning and carrying out a wide variety of activites with children. They also need a wide range of strategies for monitoring and evaluating both these areas.

- In addition to analysing types of interaction, there is also a need to consider the range of functions for which language is used by both children and teachers. This is linked to the variety of roles that children will engage in in the classroom.

All of these teacher-pupil/s interaction patterns have a place in teaching. Our concern is that too many teachers tend to remain in one pattern - the "ring-master" one - that is not optimally conducive to language learning. What is required is that we use a wide variety of patterns - selecting each one as being appropriate to the particular kind of activity we are currently undertaking.

In Figure 6, we attempt to show how a curriculum should be derived from the demands of the "real world" and its "daily round" of activities, and that such a curriculum is translated into pupil learning via judicious selection of activities, which in turn should dictate the notions and functions which will be paramount in tasks chosen to provide pupil learning of connected discourse in oral and/or written modes.

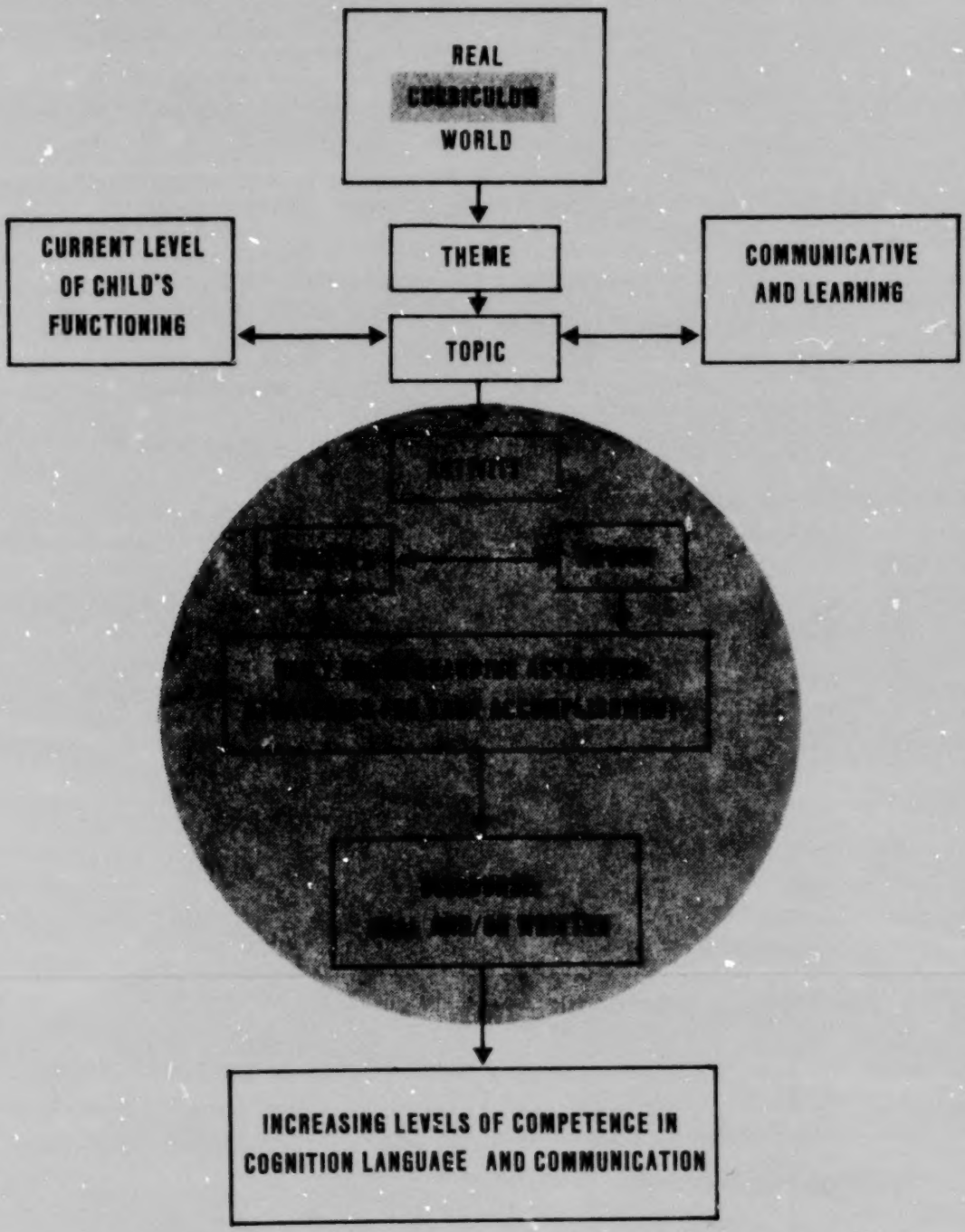


Figure 6 : The derivation of tasks for communication programming from a real-world curriculum.

Figure 7 shows how planning can then move from the curriculum to learning via discourse, where the planned curriculum provides themes/topics, which in interaction with the current level of functioning of the child, and his communicative/learning needs, determine the functions and notions which need to be learned via appropriate activities both inside and outside the classroom. It should be noted that for our purposes, functions may be defined as the purposes to which language is applied and the goals/outcomes of this purpose, e.g., identifying, reporting, correcting, asking, agreeing/disagreeing, accepting/declining, etc. Notions can be seen as underlying concepts and ideas. These underlie all curriculum areas. Examples from Science are the notions of pressure, volume and space, leading (in spatial relations) to the further notions of location, distance, motion, and so forth.

Generally speaking, functions and notions should be seen as preceding and determining forms, so that forms cannot be taught in isolation, but must grow out of pupils' needs to understand and execute a particular functional-notional learning experience.

Figure 7 shows how the general curriculum model of Figure 6 would be used to derive a particular lesson or set of lessons. It can be seen that the teacher's job of determining what needs to be taught, developing methods and materials to teach it and finally evaluating the outcomes of the learning is a very complex one indeed, and demands high levels of professional skill in child development, linguistics and psycholinguistics, pedagogy and evaluation of learning outcomes.

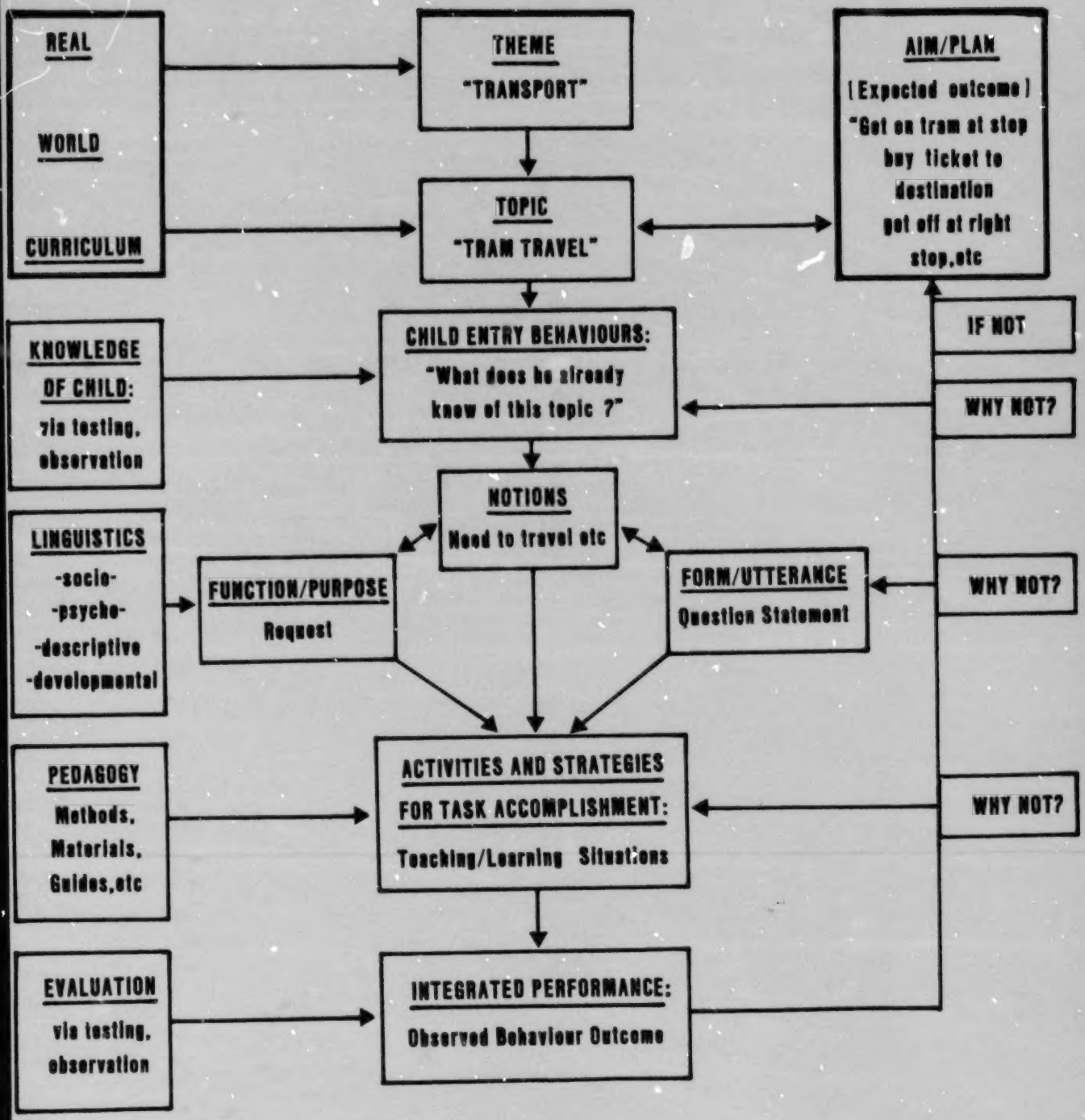


Figure 7 : The derivation of a lesson from the general curriculum model.

As Ingram (1979) has pointed out, any language program must be oriented towards the real-life needs of the learners, e.g.,

- the settings in which the language is used,
- the purposes (functions) for which the language is used,
  e.g. - to buy things in a shop
  - to make an appointment to see a doctor
  - to tell a dentist which tooth is aching
  - to send a telegram
  - to disagree with a close friend
  - to establish a bank account
  - to insure one's house
  etc., etc. .....

Thus, in developing a language curriculum or lesson, the teacher must identify the settings in which the pupil will need the language, the communication tasks (language functions) and the notions or ideas to be conveyed, and only then can the range of syntactic forms in which these communicative demands may be expressed be determined.

There are natural clusters of settings in which language is used for similar functions. One such cluster is, for example:

- a doctor's surgery,
- a hospital casualty department,
- a dentist's waiting room,
- an optometrist's consulting rooms,
- etc.

which taken together can constitute a <u>theme</u> for a set of learning experiences, e.g., <u>Health</u>.

Some other such themes include:

Shopping
Safety
Social Contacts/Relations
Banking
Leisure
Entertainment
The Law
Post and Telecommunications
Housing
Employment
etc., etc. ....

(See the thematic <u>Challenges</u> materials of Abbs and Sexton, 1978, for good examples of activities and materials developed around themes e.g., "Somewhere to Live, Somewhere to Work, Someone to Love, Something to Do, Somewhere to Go").

As examples, consider:

<u>Theme</u>: Shopping

<u>Function</u>: Buying goods in a

<u>Setting</u>:
- supermarket
- grocery store
- pharmacy

- baker's
- newsagent
- school canteen
- etc.

leading to

Notions
- quantity
- size
- credit
- location

and Functions
- requesting
- describing
- rejecting
- bargaining

leading to

Transactions
- asking for a loaf of bread
- enquiring about - a shirt
  - cost
  - size
  - location
  - quantity
  - etc.
- asking for assistance
- thanking for help
- paying bill
  - cash
  - cheque
  - bankcard
  - layby
  - credit
- delivery
- accepting/rejecting a particular item
- returning unwanted goods
- etc.

all imply particular

Syntax Forms
- Yes/No questions - "Have you got ...?"
- Wh-questions - "Where are your shirts?"
- Modifiers - "That's too small."

- Do you have — (colour)? Don't you have —?
- Can I have —?
- How much/many —?
- Have you got —?
- Do you have —? Haven't you got —?
- I want —. I don't want —.
- Excuse me. Thank you.
- Too small/big/expensive.
- I like it/don't —
- What do you want?
- May I help you?

Lexis
- a loaf of bread

- t-shirt
- credit
- etc.

Activities

- making up shopping lists
- budgeting
- menus
- comparison of shop prices/quality/variety
- role playing
- reading signs (lay-by
  (refunds
- assessment of advertisements
- returning goods
- etc.

Theme: Transport

Setting: Bus stop
Railway station
Tram
Taxi (on street or rank)

Transactions:
Asking for directions
Buying tickets
Asking for timetable information
Giving directions

Notions: Point of time
Frequency
Location
Motion in directions
Cost
Map sense

Syntax: Questions - Does this bus go to ...?
- Is this the bus for ...?

Directions - 27 Smith Street, please.
Two thirties please.
One return to Geelong, please.

Lexis: Taxi rank
Station
etc.

A Language Experience Approach to Themes and Topics:

Rather than starting from a series or sequence of teacher determined activities ("This is what we are going to do.") and a set of basic information to be taught: ("Listen while I tell you ....") one can start with children's own interests and experiences.

As an example, the topic Frogs became the focus of a class activity when a child brought a frog to school. The steps involved in the development of this topic are outlined below:

Step 1. A child brought a frog to school.

Step 2. Brainstorming - The teacher and children made a list together of all the things that the children knew about frogs - both from observation and from previous experience.

Step 3. The group paid a visit to the school library and collected all the books that they could find about frogs.

Step 4. Investigation - Children worked individually or in small groups with their books. As new information was learned from the pictures, diagrams and text, it was added to the original list. Some items on the list were changed as new information came up.

Step 5. Children made a book "Everything We Know About Frogs" as a group activity. This involved the use of "present tense" as facts are "habitual" (e.g., "Frogs are cold").

Step 6. A second book - "Can I Hop" - was made to broaden the topic to one about a variety of animals.

Step 7. A Wall Chart was made of the vocabulary used in the topic. This was used for reading and word study.

Step 8. Sentence Making - Children dictated sentences about frogs which were written down verbatim. These were then edited, typed and cut into phrases. Children rearranged the sentences inn their own language books.

Step 9. Blackboard Diagram - The life cycle of a frog.

Step 10. Read and Draw - exercise on the topic used sentences and noun phrases - taken from the Tate program.

Step 11. Paper folding - Children made a frog from the book "One Piece of Paper".

Additional Activities:

. Take children on a visit to a creek or pond.

. Children tell of their experiences dealing with frogs and tadpoles.

. Read stories to the children about frogs.

. a. Draw the children's attention to the characteristics of frogs, e.g., through direct observation of animals in an aquarium. Children can draw the frogs, tadpoles and eggs in the aquarium.

b. Children make up sentences from the pragmatic situation. The procedure is reversed - children reconstruct the pragmatic situation from sentences.

. Sponge Printing - children print frogs, tadpoles and eggs on paper

using pieces of sponge.

- After observing and discussing the life cycle of the frog, the children can:
  a. draw and label each stage in the life cycle.
  b. arrange the life cycle drawings in order and position these on the wall.

FEATURES OF SPECIFIC TEACHING APPROACHES IN LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING

We have so far considered some of the principles and practices in two of the three major aspects of communication development in hearing-impaired children: Conversation (the activity in which all aspects of communication come together in the best possible way) and Task-Oriented Approaches (in which the content of the ordinary curriculum is used to enhance the development of communication competence). We believe that adequate input of these two aspects will do a great deal to enhance the communication competence of hearing-impaired pupils. However, it is still true that hearing impairment (particularly when it is severe to profound) places great limitations on access to language, and although the two approaches so far discussed will do much to normalize the pragmatic communication skills of even the deafest pupils, there will still be many among this group who, despite these approaches being utilized with them, will have significant deviancies in their communication skills vis-a-vis the expression of their competence in Standard English. In particular their syntactic and phonological expression of ideas will depart from those of Standard English.

We therefore believe that there is an important place for direct teaching of the surface structure skills of English syntax and phonology, via approaches that we now call "Specific Teaching". Although the two are, in fact, inseparable in use, it is possible to separate them for specific teaching attention, and in this volume we will concentrate our attention on syntax, rather than phonology. There are many good texts now available in the phonology teaching area, and we have already referred the reader to Ling (1976), Iverson, Adamson & Cronin (1979) and Calvert & Silverman (1976).

The principles of derivation of specific language teaching content from authentic real-life needs, the development of evaluation and teaching methods, and the development and/or evaluation of the suitability of teaching materials are now fairly clear (Power, 1981).

We here present details of a number of programs which are in increasing use in Australian schools and services for the hearing-impaired which we feel meet the necessary requirements for good content, methods and materials. However, we would not wish to give the impression that these are the only approaches available, or that they themselves are not in need of further development. Such approaches are in their early stages and need considerably more work in both scope and detail in order to meet ideal requirements. We believe strongly that teachers need to develop these approaches to suit the particular needs of their own pupils and educational setting, and that schools and services need to develop clear and comprehensive policies about their use and development.

This is both because each school or service has particular philosophies and needs to which any approach needs to be adapted, but particularly because specific teaching approaches can all too easily deteriorate into stereotypic and stilted routines which end up producing the meaningless "baked sentences" against which Van Uden (1977) has so cogently argued.

We cannot urge too strongly the need for flexible, creative and imaginative use of these approaches in as authentic a manner and environment as the ingenuity of schools and teachers can command.

We emphasise also that these specific language teaching approaches are but one part of a comprehensive communication skills program which includes the conversational and task-oriented approaches described above, and in which considerable attention also needs to be devoted to the secondary language skills of reading and written expression. Both of these areas present great learning problems for hearing-impaired pupils and schools and teachers need to develop comprehensive and coherent policies for teaching in these fields also. (We hope to report further on the development of literacy skills for hearing-impaired pupils, after devoting our 1983 Workshop to that topic.)

With these warnings in mind, we present several approaches which are being used in Australian schools and services for the hearing-impaired, which all are promising to meet the principles necessary (Power, 1981), and all of which need and are capable of further development to meet those needs. Much of what we have to say here is dependent upon the draft Language Curriculum Statement: Part A. Oral Language Development of the Glendonald School for Deaf Children in Kew, Victoria, and we are grateful for permission to use it. The form in which it is used here is our own and does not necessarily represent the official policy or practice of that school, as we have somewhat amended it for our purposes.

Within specific teaching approaches it is assumed that certain language skills need to be specially taught because the two more general approaches discussed above have not enabled a particular child (or group) to learn those skills. Even within specific teaching approaches, the central concern is always communication and interaction with other people, hence language use must mirror the pupil's sensitivity to the perspective and knowledge of his listeners. However, during language development, language gains flexibility, until in any given situation the child has many options of style, manner and grammatical form that he can use for his own purposes. However, along with greater flexibility comes greater reflection: there is a steady improvement in the ability to think about language, to treat it as an entity and to gain conscious control over the medium itself. It is to this notion of reflection that the specific learning situation is directed. The aim is for children to consciously monitor the complexities of language, to consider form and style, intelligibility, grammaticality and appropriateness. Just as in other aspects of the school program pupils are encouraged to step back and consider not only what they do but the various ways in which it can be done, so in the specific teaching situation aspects of language can be reflected upon. The rationale for the teaching of language in specific situations is to enable the child to focus his attention on its complexity, to have him unconsciously grapple with the rules and to have the opportunity to discover the underlying system of language use.

Specific teaching of syntax is what teachers of the deaf have always done: they have focussed in on language problems of deaf pupils. In order to do this adequately, the teacher needs to have a clear idea of normal language acquisition processes and products and how this is reflected in the progress (and hence needs) of an individual deaf pupil.

In such activities the role of the teacher is central. Paradoxically, however, her role is not to be the "centre of attention" but to be the kind of teacher who provides a setting and activities to enable the pupils to generate their own learning. She is, in Barnes' (1976) terms, an "Interpretation Teacher" who provides activities as a means of encouraging children to take an active part in their own learning. Children are encouraged during activities to reshape their view of the linguistic system and extend their ability to think rationally about it. The social context in which the activity takes place is recognized as partly determining whether they perform this function. The teacher's role is to ensure that her students see the task as relevant to their own purposes. The interactions that take place during activity are seen as playing an important part. The teacher sees her contributions as part of a dialogue in which she plays a crucial role. She therefore replies as well as comments and allows pupil contributions to influence the direction of the lesson, thus encouraging pupils to play an important part in the shaping of their own knowledge.

SPECIFIC LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES AT THE SYNTACTIC LEVEL.

1. A Sequential Developmental Program

   e.g., the Tate Oral English Program which provides a step-by-step format for developing spoken language (Tate, 1971). (We note that despite its name, the Tate "Oral" English Program is quite amenable for use with any manualy spplemented communication system, and the short-hand use of "oral" in this book should be taken to include any manually supplemented system as well.)

2. A Diagnostic Program

   e.g., the Test of Syntactic Abilities (Quigley, Steinkamp, Power & Jones, 1978) which provides a diagnostic kit for assessment and a parallel teaching program (TSA Syntax Program; Quigley & Power, 1979-81).

3. Discourse Analysis Approaches

   (a) e.g., the Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure (LARSP; Crystal, Fletcher & Garman, 1976).

   (b) e.g., "Error Analysis", and

   (c) e.g., "Communication Breakdown" analysis techniques.

1. The Tate Oral English Program

The Tate program consists of a series of books of graded lessons in the use of English, originally intended for teaching English as a foreign language to pupils in non-English-speaking countries of the South Pacific region. It concentrates particularly on aspects of syntax

which can cause confusion for pupils. As we note in detail below, the original theoretical basis of the program is inappropriate, but the content and sequence of the lesson plans are held to be excellent. The sequence of introduction of "new items" follows what is now known to be normal development very well, and although some modifications to the sequence have already been made and more will undoubtedly need to be made in the future in the light of greater experience with the program, it is, even now, held to be of great value as an aid to specific teaching programs for deaf pupils. (It should be noted that the Tate program is particularly prone to degenerating into "baked routines", and teachers have to take great care to be flexible and ingenious in providing authentic environments for language use to prevent this happening. We provide a brief summary by Power and Elias of the reservations some teachers have about its use, and the points made there need to be borne in mind by teachers adopting the scheme.)

It should also be noted that experience in the use of the scheme indicates that it is not suitable for, and should not be used in its original form, with children who have not reached a certain level of syntactic maturity. Experience indicates that the early Tate lessons can be confusing and disheartening for pupils who (as a minimum requirement) are not producing utterances of a minimum length of three words.

Under these circumstances, teachers may follow the general lead of the items in Tate's Book 1, but introduce them very informally via games, talks and other "playway" activities. Emphasis at the early stages should be on input of the forms, with no great concern for the child's 'correct" expression of the forms. Only when the teacher judges the child is ready should any more formal approach to the Tate scheme be initiated.

Major considerations in using the Tate Program

A great deal of the Tate Program, particularly in the early stages, is taken up with the introduction of a number of major linguistic systems; the pronoun system, the auxiliary verb system, the determiner system, and verb tenses. The copula verb (i.e., verb 'to be' as a main verb) and Yes/No question forms revise these earlier systems. These are the systems that appear to be very slow in developing when a discourse analysis is made of hearing impaired children's spoken or written language.

The underlying assumption of the Tate Program is that some aspects of language require specific teaching. In the case of the Tate scheme this involves the traditional "Tate lesson" which is highly structured and usually fairly "formal". Hence we have specific teaching and formally structured learning situations.

There are certain expectations held by the teacher and pupils, -

- Children usually sit in a half circle, teacher out the front with a range of materials at hand. Often she also has an outline of the steps of the lesson in point form.

- New items are always introduced orally (whether manually supplemented or not) in a specific situation.

- Children come to know that the materials that are referred to or manipulated determine what they are expected to say.

- Children respond individually to different situations. The situations change as the focus of attention moves from one lot of materials to another. Sometimes the class is asked to respond as a group.

The teaching point involves not just the use of "correct" sentences, but the use of "correct" sentences to describe a situation. The situation must ensure that comprehension follows automatically. In each case a correct response depends upon comprehension of the situation.

Learning of a new item comes not just from repetition, but rather the creation of a situation in which one, preferably a known aspect of language, can be contrasted with another.

> I'm six, you're seven. I'm here. You're over there. I've got a lot of eggs. You've got a lot of sugar.

Children should be manipulating language rather than practising forms ("the brain must be engaged"). The dominant focus should be oral (again whether manually supplemented or not).

At no stage should children be in a position of direct imitation, chorusing with the teacher or repeating back what the teacher has said.

Likewise, it is not productive in the linguistic sense to have children read sentences from the board even when the elements have to be selected from boxes. Ideally some key elements should always be provided by the child. Often this will be prompted by the teacher by the manipulation of objects or the referring to particular situations.

The central underlying "mood" of the Tate lesson is for the child to reflect on language use, to select utterances that are both appropriate and grammatical. Typically, this is an intellectual task with some "cognitive pull".

The teaching point is always a "syntactic contrast". This has to be clear to the teacher before the lesson begins, but it must also be clear to the children as the lesson proceeds.

There is a certain amount of repetition of structure, but each child is generally required to produce a different utterance.

Lessons need to be brisk. This can be achieved by ensuring children know the "rules of the game", e.g., taking turns, responding quickly, finding the appropriate language to describe variations in the context; not merely imitating, etc.

Even though the teaching point is always a syntactic contrast it is important to try not to break rules relating to other aspects of the linguistic system, e.g.:

(a) the phonological features of the utterance require that a normal rate of speech is maintained, and that natural transitions from one word to the next are evident,

(b) the semantic features of the utterance require that the meaning of what is said is always evident; that at no stage are children able to imitate without understanding,

(c) even more importantly perhaps are the pragmatic features of an utterance. It is not merely the sentence and its structure that needs to be acquired, but the rules relating to the appropriate use of that utterance in everyday situations.

Normally questions require a short answer. However, in the Tate Program it is often necessary for the child to use a full sentence in order to indicate that he understands the full teaching point. To avoid the most unnatural full sentence response to a question, the teacher can indicate that she wants the child to make a statement about a particular object or situation by saying, 'Tell me about ...' or she may use a non-linguistic indicator, e.g. , pointing first to a child and then to an object or situation., ... or 'It's your turn!'

Normally the present continuous form is used not to describe events that are continuing, but its use is restricted in almost every case to the description of events that the listener is unaware of, e.g., "What are you doing? I am writing a letter to my mother"- rather than "I am writing" which is self-evident.

A major problem in Tate sessions involves the need to include a variety of revision tasks as well as a new item in each lesson, while still keeping the lesson short and brisk. Not only careful preparation is needed but also knowledge of the underlying principle of the program to ensure that the major systems within the program are continually revised and expanded.

This program requires daily work even though it can be difficult to make up the time when other school or class activities cut across the time available. The aim is to ensure that at least five lessons are taken each week. Whether or not this occurs is to some extent dependent on teacher commitment to the program but this of course is in turn affected by the delayed feedback from children's progress. In many instances children may struggle in class sessions to perform as they are required and it is not until revision has been done over extended periods that progress can be clearly seen.

The learning model for the Tate program is not one of over-learning or of massive repetition of particular forms. Lessons develop competence in a cumulative fashion. Hence it is the quality of the response and how this changes over time that is important.

To help the child use the rules that he uses in Tate lessons in other situations, the teacher should accept his natural language, but have perhaps one item on any day that she is not prepared for the child to get away with as an "error". If she is to get a transfer across into everyday language she needs to focus on items that have been the target of language "input" sessions in language "use" situations, (i.e., outside the Tate lesson).

Modifications in using the Tate Oral English Program with hearing-impaired students.

Some modifications have been made of the sequence of new items in the Tate program to meet the needs of hearing-impaired students:

- Past Tense is introduced during the second half of Book One and is contrasted to the present continuous form.

- Subject-Verb inversion in Yes/No questions which is introduced in the first half of Book Two is particularly difficult. This can be moved to the latter half of the book or be delayed even further.

- Vocabulary items are not always appropriate. These can be changed as long as there is no change in the syntactic properties of the words substituted; for instance, change a mass noun with another mass noun, a regular verb with another regular verb and so on.

Some new items in the Tate program need to be changed for "dialect" reasons. In Australian English the form 'have got' is far more common than 'have', e.g., "I've got" should be used rather than "I have". Other items need to be changed because of "language change", the term 'May I ...?' to indicate permission request is far less frequently used and in some speakers has disappeared in favour of 'Can I ...?' A new item may need to be supplemented with another item because of the demands of the situation. In response to a child shaking his head and saying "I like cabbage". A teacher is well advised to introduce immediately "I don't like ...". The children aren't necessarily expected to give this structure back immediately. Emphasis should be kept on the lesson item.

In some cases aspects of language need to be introduced earlier because of children's communicative needs, e.g., past tense. Young deaf children very early want to refer to events that have passed. On the other hand some items may need to be delayed because of the linguistic complexity involved. Both the subject-verb inversion of Yes/No questions and the short answer response are later in development than their placement in Book 2 would indicate. Similarly some children are unable to cope with the length of utterances such as "I can see a boy and a girl", and these may be delayed, depending on the judgement of the teacher.

Class teachers need to use the program creatively but with very careful attention to the complexity of change that they introduce. It seems safe to incorporate structures already covered in lessons that introduce new items, but only jump ahead with very careful consideration of the consequences. For instance, the teacher might want to introduce "Don't touch"; adding "it's hot", knowing that this has already been covered, but would be ill-advised to introduce "Why?" or "Don't touch because it's hot" at this stage because there is a jump of four books between these items.

Guidelines for the Classroom Teacher.

This set of guidelines for teachers to use with the program at the class activity level has been drawn up from various teachers' experience using the program. The typical lesson format has many features which are important for success, notably high levels of teacher competence and student enthusiasm and co-operation.

Although at this stage very little work has been done in this area, theoretically it seems sensible to provide some planned input of the content of the Tate Program at the receptive level before work at the expressive level is commenced. Hence it might be considered useful to

first introduce a "Pre-Tate Program" for children not yet at the stage of attempting a fully-fledged Tate lesson situation. In addition, for children already involved in the Tate program, it seems that new items could be introduced in situations in which children are required to respond in order to show that they comprehend before they are required to produce them as "utterances" in Tate lessons, e.g., auditory training lessons and incidental segments throughout the school day seem natural places to consider this.

As the Tate Program is an oral expressive program it is essential that each child has ample opportunity to participate and that teacher talk be reduced to a minimum. Perhaps 80% child talk to 20% teacher talk could be a starting goal.

A set of basic materials is needed in each classroom to facilitate planning. It is suggested that each department also have a trolley of materials from which teachers can draw on as required. A sufficiently wide variety of materials and a variety of activities help overcome children's waning interest when the same type of activities and materials are used too often.

To sum up:-

Teachers' confidence in using the scheme is as important as children's familiarity with the rules of a Tate session. Their understanding of what is required in a particular session depends in turn on the teacher cueing the children into what is expected.

The correct placement of the group in the lesson sequence is most important: is this particular lesson too advanced or too easy for a particular group? As no placement test is available, initial placement will depend on teacher intuition/judgement and trialling in consultation with support staff.

Given that both teacher and children are familiar with the scheme and that the placement is appropriate, then the number of revisions in each session can be built up to three or four. This requires careful planning. It also requires ready availability of materials.

It is also suggested that the time spent on the oral section of the program be no more than twenty minutes at a time and that two sessions a day be the limit. In the early stages the time may need to be cut down to six or seven minutes.

Finally, at all times it needs to be kept in mind that the Tate Program makes up only one segment of the oral expression program. It fits into the model as the specific teaching component at the level of syntax in a similar manner to the Ling Program at the phonological level.

Evaluation

An evaluation form for children's responses in Tate sessions should be drawn up which provides guidelines for teachers regarding children's progress and the appropriateness of the level at which they are working. For instance, if the child's responses are fluent when a new item is first introduced, this may indicate that the level at which the child is working can be advanced. Conversely, if the child's responses are very

slow and there seems little evidence of understanding, then the level at which the child is working will need to be lowered. In this way children's responses in lessons can be used to evaluate the appropriateness of the level of the class program. Hence evaluation at both individual level and class program level needs to be an ongoing process.

As we have noted, the Tate program is very complex to use and can easily deteriorate into stereotyped "baked routines" and we would therefore strongly recommend extensive in-service training from teachers experienced in its theory and practice before its introduction in a particular school or class.

A Note on the Use of Grammatical Terms in Specific Language Teaching

At a late stage in the language development of the child, Van Uden (1977) introduces a systematic program in grammar or linguistics in which children learn to label parts of speech and are required to work through systematic exercises related to the grammatical rules that they have been taught.

There is one fundamental question that needs to be considered in this regard:

> If a child can demonstrate that he has the concepts of "noun" and "verb"; that he can supply missing words of an appropriate grammatical category for sentences or he can finish sentences that are started only with a few words, then there is no need and no advantage in teaching the grammatical terms for these concepts. It is enough for the child to demonstrate to the teacher that he can operate with these elements of language without having to label them or do systematic exercises which involve the knowledge of the metalanguage of traditional grammar, e.g., "noun", "verb", "subject", "object", "phrase", "clause", and so forth.

It may be interesting for very advanced pupils to study grammar like this in its own right as an interesting example of human intellectual experience, but there is no evidence that early knowledge of such labels assists in any way in language acquisition, whether oral or written.

2. The Test of Syntactic Abilities and the TSA Syntax Program

The Test of Syntactic Abilities grew out of a lengthy research project at the University of Illinois by Stephen P. Quigley and a group of assistants (Quigley, Wilbur, Power, Montanelli and Steinkamp, 1976). Its advantage is that it was specifically designed for use with hearing-impaired children, and investigates areas of syntax and morphology which the previous research had shown to present particular difficulties for them (Quigley, Steinkamp, Power & Jones, 1978). It is divided into two sections a Screening Test (of which there are two parallel forms) and a series of Diagnostic Tests (of which there are nine) which cover nine major areas of English syntax and morphology. (There is now a computer program available for the Apple II for the two forms of the Screening Test (Quigley, Steinkamp, Power & Jones, 1982), which automatically scores the test and provides the same diagnostic information as the pencil and paper form).

A particular advantage of the TSA is that it is closely linked to a teaching program: the TSA Syntax Program (Quigley & Power, 1979-81). This program provides a set of materials linked to each of the nine areas of the TSA, giving extensive and detailed diagnostic breakdowns of each pupil's deviancies from Standard English and presenting lessons to attempt to remediate those deviancies. Each Teacher's Guide provides a description of the syntactic structure under consideration; an outline of what is known of the development of the structure in hearing and hearing-impaired pupils; and keys for detailed diagnostic scoring of the subtest for that structure. Some guides provide interactive activities for teaching the structure; and all provide a series of Workbooks for each aspect of the structure to provide practice follow-up after the learning activities.

In accordance with the principles we have discussed above, it is important that the activities be seen as the central teaching/learning core of the program, and that teachers not rely too heavily (or even less, entirely) upon the Workbooks for "busy work" with the program. The Workbooks should definitely be seen only as ancillary to the major teaching/learning activities.

It is recommended by the authors that the test and its associated program not be used with children below ten or so years of age, because much of the work depends upon reading and writing. However, teachers may use their own judgement and knowledge of pupils to introduce orally only (whether manually supplemented or not) some of the activities in particular areas somewhat below this age.

The TSA Syntax Program works on the principle that many hearing-impaired pupils will not necessarily learn particular syntactic structures just by exposure to them in conversational and situational settings and that particular teaching which presents the student with a number of sentences of the same basic structure is a useful way to demonstrate the "type" of structure that is "correct". It seems that with some structures there is a problem in that the amount of data that the child has to work on from everyday situations may be insufficient to deduce the underlying rule. Many structures are infrequently encountered in discourse and very often distorted by communication "transmission" problems, (e.g. "ed" past tense marker is very hard to see, particularly when represented by "t" as in "pushed").

By presenting students with a variety of sentences with different meanings but with the same underlying structure, and encouraging students to "add" some more, the underlying grammatical process is brought into focus. This provides students with a "bank of data" to work on to deduce rules (pre-reflectively) without stating the rules or naming the components that make up the structure.

Rather than working on a variety of structures, it is better to focus on one specific structure at a time, gradually incorporating other structures in order of difficulty. The TSA level of difficulty tables are a considerable help in this regard.

With most students it will take years to reach the stage of being proficient in the use of the full range of a particular area such as Negation or Conjunction. This is why it is necessary to work through various structures, but continually "move back" to pick up more complex features of those introduced previously, and whenever possible, no structure should be treated in isolation.

Follow-up activities can be used to ensure students retain what they have learned. This can be done incidentally in a variety of subject areas or with the next structured program. It is important not to treat each program in isolation but to capitalize on interdependencies between structures as a way of building in revision of programs, e.g., after having worked on Negation and then having introduced Conjunction:- "I like it but he doesn't", etc.

As an example of this procedure using the TSA it is recommended that a progress chart be started for each child using the Screening Test which has 120 items taken from those which appear in the diagnostic tests of specific structures. From this screening test the stage of development and areas of particular weakness can be highlighted. Data from the test show the level of difficulty of each test for children at various ages. This is an excellent guide to the sequence of introduction of the various structures into a language development program. When the syntactic knowledge of each child in each section of the test is determined it can be decided where to start. The diagnostic notes in the manual and the list of structures and coding system on the back of the screening test are the guide to this. For the child who has just reached the intermediate section of the school, or for the child who has slow language development, the first test called "Negation" will be the place most commonly started. Many children will have mastered some aspects of Negation, but not all of them. Administering the separate Negation Test will allow for a more accurate assessment of where the problem lies. The diagnostic tables in the Teacher's Guide will show how to assess if the child is operating on a rule that marks the negative initially: "Not the boy is pushing the girl."; or perhaps operating with an auxiliary omission rule: "The boy not pushing the girl." If we look at the problem developmentally, then the child will move from the first rule to the second before attaining the standard rule of auxiliary placement: "The boy is not pushing the girl."

So that each section of the program not be seen in isolation, it is suggested that as the language development program moves from a major focus on one particular structure to another that those structures that have been dealt with previously be incorporated into the "new" structure. This is quite easy to achieve in the case of conjunction which follows on from negation; the "easiest" structure. It is also a good idea to have an eye on what is to follow at a later stage in the program. Verb Processes for example, includes "Sequencing" which involves continuing the same tense from one sentence to the next or from one clause to the next. As Conjoining is concerned with clause sequencing and then incorporating different aspects of tense it will be an added component of the Conjunction program. This exemplifies the overlapping nature of the structures that are tested separately. It is a good idea to keep in mind the various similarities and differences among structures and the various ways that overlapping and interdependency occur so that most advantage can be taken of activities used, and so that the format of the materials does not lead to isolation of units in the program.

It is also important that the kinds of activities used in the published program be seen by teachers as models for developing more and different materials particularly suited to the pupils they are teaching, in order to give flexibility and variety to class activities.

3. Discourse Analysis Approach

(a) Transcripts of children's conversations or examples of their written expression are rich sources of data for evaluation of language development. The results of systematic analysis of these sources are also extremely valuable guides to specific teaching programs. To take one example, the Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure (LARSP; Crystal, Fletcher & Garman, 1976) provides a comprehensive framework to assess the syntactic competence of the child, avoiding many of the pitfalls of similar procedures by providing a profile of the output of a particular child on a particular occasion. The discourse analysis of the sample also gives information about the kind of interaction situation from which the sample was drawn.

Extensive in-service work is needed to use the procedure to full advantage, and even then it is not until a number of profiles have been completed in some detail that the full value of the procedure is understood. However, after this early familiarizing period it seems that "mini-profiles" can be undertaken to highlight particular areas of syntax; the auxiliary and pronoun systems and verb tense marking being a few of particular value.

In both the early text A Grammatical Analysis of Language Disability (Crystal, Fletcher and Garman, 1976) and the later work Working with LARSP (Crystal, 1979) the authors give suggested procedures for specific teaching. As with the Tate Program, the emphasis is on syntactic contrast. What remains a problem for the teacher is the selection of targets for specific teaching. The analysis of the child's productions gives the teacher guidelines for problem areas which may then be tackled in a systematic fashion. The decision as to which particular syntactic problems will be tackled must be based upon the teacher's knowledge of the child's needs and capacities. Very often the areas discovered via LARSP analysis may be tied in to the TSA Syntax Program activities discussed above, as with some areas of the sequence in the Tate Program lessons.

There are also some general principles and strategies for remediation provided by both Crystal, Fletcher & Garman (1976) and Crystal (1979) which teachers should bear in mind, and which, in fact, are applicable to all approaches to the specific teaching of language. Among these are

1. Relate language to action - use dynamic action verbs - use a new syntactic structure within a familiar pattern of action.

2. Make the problem real - avoid questions, directions and imperatives which impose upon pupils their acting in pointless, trivial, and/or irrelevant ways.

3. Keep the child's language under the teacher's control.

4. Note the central importance of syntactic contrast for learning - the grammatical functions of English never work in isolation but in contrast. Hence contexts must be devised which will allow such contrasts to be perceived directly and unambiguously.

In both books the authors also give numerous suggestions for activities for learning: imitation tasks, modelled imitation, incremental tasks, replacement and substitution tasks, embedding and transformation tasks, and so forth, all of which may provide very useful models for teachers for developing their own teaching activities, again perhaps in conjunction with a co-ordinated program using Tate and/or TSA approaches.

(b) An Error Analysis Approach:

Traditionally teachers have been influenced by the kinds of "errors" that they perceive children make as sources for specific teaching activities. It appears, however, that there are certain kinds of errors that have received greater attention than others: like the homophones "there"/"their" and certain grammatical features like "I done", etc., receiving apparently disproportionate attention. Even with a quantitative assessment of error types, and subsequent focus on frequency of errors, there are questions to be raised about the importance of frequency per se. It appears that an over-riding concern in real life situations is the communicative power of language use and the notion of communication breakdown is critical here. Hence, we should move to

(c) A Focus on Communication Breakdown

If communication holds the key to judgements made regarding the sequencing of items in specific language programs, then the communicative or semantic load of particular items is critical. Intuitively, negation and word order rules are important, as well as passives and some relative forms, and conjunctions which mark an important logical relationship between one clause and another would all be prime targets for a teacher concerned with successful communication.

As it were, "All errors are not created equal" and teachers should be careful to examine their pupils' communication so that those errors which contribute most to communication breakdown are those which receive most attention. Although much attention has been focussed on the speech of deaf pupils, we know, for example, that suprasegmental speech characteristics such as stress, intonation and so forth affect speech comprehensibility more than articulation of individual sounds. Surprisingly little is known about the relative contribution of deaf pupils' syntax to the intelligibility of their communications, and studies are badly needed in this area.

At the moment we must rely mostly on teachers' informed intuitions about the relative importance of different kinds of errors though research in the field of English as a Second/Foreign language does have some insights to offer teachers of the deaf in this regard.

For instance, Johansson's (1978) survey of studies of "error gravity" among foreign speakers of English, i.e., the relative acceptability of foreign speakers' errors to native English speakers shows that sentences containing word order errors were less acceptable than those containing subject-verb concord errors, which were in turn less acceptable than ones containing verb complementation errors. He cites other research which supports this position, but extension of this kind of work to hearing-impaired writers/speakers is badly needed so that we can have an empirical basis for our ordering of gravity of their "errors" so that teaching sequences can be more systematically planned.

Error analysis can not only be used as a source of information about a student's language acquisition level, but it can also be used as a guide in deciding what to teach next.

Error analysis can also be looked at in relation to communicative success. The fundamental question then is - "Which types of errors cause the listener or reader to misunderstand the message intended?"

This brings to light areas which are often neglected in language programs but which are immportant in terms of communicative effectiveness. On the other hand, some areas of teaching may have little or no impact on understanding but often appear to take up an inordinate amoiunt of time in many classrooms.

When a student makes several errors in a single sentence, what should the teacher do? Model the correct sentence, hoping the child will notice all the corrected errors? Drill each grammatical point in turn? What should be done about errors that have not yet been covered in class or that are thought to be too difficult to cover at this time?

The usual approach to error analysis is to classify errors into linguistic categories. However, an alternative approach is to first consider the communicative effectiveness. Errors that affect communication often involve:

1. word order
2. sentence connectors (e.g., conjunctions)
3. missing elements that signal exceptions to frequent syntactic rules (e.g.,: was/by is passive voice) and
4. reverse order structures - "reverse verbs" and "reverse adjectives" in which the order of experience and stimulus is reversed. ("He amused me.")

These "global errors" often affct the overall organization of the sentence, whereas "local errors" affect a single element but usually do not hinder communication, e.g., plural morphemes, e.g., "two dog", "a apple" are not usually seen to be ambiguous, only odd.

Teaching Guidelines:-

1. Some errors are more important than others.

2. Most students make too many errors for them all to be satisfactorily worked on at any one time.

3. Most students dislike correction.

4. Over-correction reduces connfidence and motivation.

5. By selecting "global errors" the number of areas of focus is limited and learning more likely to be successful.

6. As "global errors" affect meaning, their reduction improves communication competence.

If greater emphasis is placed on meaning (i.e., the semantic component) and less on syntactic structures unless they impinge on meaning, some students can be introduced more quickly to new structures

without waiting till the earlier structures are "standard", e.g., "This is a pen and that's a pencil." "This is hot but that is cold." These utterances require the same structire as a simple sentence with addition of a conjunction as connective. Much more work needs to be donne on this aspect of programming language teaching for hearing-impaired pupils.

USING SPECIFIC TEACHING APPROACHES

A selection among the various options for Specific Language Teaching will depend on a number of factors. To repeat:

1. Preschool-age children and some children with very limited linguistic competence are not yet ready for specific teaching situations.

2. The sequential format of the Tate Program lends itself well to short daily sessions. However (as noted above) some adaptation to the sequence is often necessary to suit individuals and some general changes to suit many hearing-impaired groups.

3. The T.S.A. materials provide a basis for a diagnostic approach and "units of work" and can be used as well to supplement the Tate program and/or in conjunction with the LARSP profile and remediation guidelines, and teaching based on error analysis.

Thus, there are no hard-and-fast rules about the amount of time per day or per week that should be spent on specific teaching approaches, except to say that the time involved in specific teaching should not make up any significant proportion of the school day. Twenty minutes to half an hour for work on syntax (perhaps in two sessions) and an even shorter time at more frequent intervals for speech activities may be a rough guide. Teachers must be guided by their knowledge of the needs of individual pupils or their group and develop a reasonable balance among providing time for conversations, using task/situation-oriented approaches within the demands of the regular subject curriculum, and specifically focussed teaching/learning via an appropriately selected mix of Tate, TSA and LARSP. (And indeed, other approaches. We would not wish to convey the impression that the approaches we discuss here should be the only ones used with hearing-impaired pupils. Continual research into new approaches and refinement of existing ones is the only way to optimize our development of communication skills among our pupils.)

PRINCIPLES FOR EVALUATING MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

1. The selection of materials should reflect school policy as well as the individual needs of pupils.

2. Following acceptance and trialling, staff should make a commitment to materials for a period of time.

3. Adoption or rejection of materials should follow consideration of their theoretical basis (explicit or implicit) irrespective of the claimed basis for the development of the materials.

For example:

(a) particular sections of some materials may be adopted despite the overall unsatisfactory nature of the theoretical basis upon which they have been developed, and/or

(b) despite inappropriate cultural factors or interest levels some materials may provide principles upon which more suitable materials may be developed. (See following section for examples of currently available materials which fall into these categories.)

4. Materials which purport to be sequential should reflect current knowledge of normal language development.

5. Materials should require the child's active cognitive involvement, and not merely demand mechanical responses to stimuli or imitation of provided stimuli.

6. The material should be perceived by the child to be a valuable part of his language learning experience.

7. Both the relationship and the distinctions between oral and written language codes should be acknowledged and provided for in any materials.

8. Selection and introduction of new materials requires adequate staff involvement and preparation.

9. The necessary level of teacher and pupil involvement should be considered before deciding upon the suitability of materials for any given group.

10. In looking at language materials, these factors need to be considered in detail:

a. The language used in the materials should relect the authentic language use of the local community.

b. The materials should be such that they are culturally appropriate to the norms of the local community.

c. The level of complexity/difficulty of the materials should be such that they are capable of being handled by the pupils for whom the materials are intended.

d. If the material is sequenced, the sequence should be such that it follows what is known of the normal sequence of language acquisition.

e. The level of difficulty of the materials should be carefully graded so as to ensure that pupils will have a large measure of success in learning. (Adequate assessment is required before appropriate placement can be made in developmental sequential programs.)

f. The materials should be such that they follow the principle of mediengerechtheit, i.e., each audio-visual medium used for the presentation of materials should do what it is best suited to do; e.g., the auditory materials should not attempt to do what

is usually done in print and vice versa, etc. (See Power (1981) for an extended discussion of this issue.)

g. The material should be sequenced such that it is gradually "decontextualised", moving from the base of the child's experiences to increasing knowledge of the wider world.

h. Cost-effectiveness of the materials and the aesthetics of their design should be taken into account.

Examples of Rejection or Only Partial Acceptance of Specific Teaching Materials.

Some materials are such that they need to be completely rejected both because of the theoretical model upon which they were constructed, their practical use, and the fact that they do not meet standards derived from what is known about the normal human learning (and particularly language learning) process. Others may be used, even though the theoretical rationale upon which they are based may need to be rejected because it does not meet these principles.

Other materials whose theoretical basis and/or practical implications are generally satisfactory may need to be used selectively because some sections may not be appropriate.

In other cases, materials may well be very acceptable in principle, but inappropriate because they were designed for a different group of children than the hearing-impaired pupils with this report is concerned. Nevertheless, these materials may provide principles upon which other materials can usefully be developed.

To make our points clearer in this regard, we provide a few examples. As an example of a program which we consider the theoretical principles of modern language acquisition and teaching indicate to be completely invalid we would cite DISTAR Language programs (Engelmann & Osborn, 1976). From the claims made by the developers this program is based on an associationistic behaviourist conditioning learning theory model. The underlying assumptions appear to be that anything can be taught if it is taught properly. The teaching paradigm consists of repetition until specific items are mastered, with the appropriateness and sequencing of items apparently not taken into account. There would appear to be no theoretical basis for the sequencing of learning events within the program. In the related Reading Program a great deal of the content is inappropriate - words selected are infrequent in common usage; three-letter words are used early and then transferred to highly inappropriate sentences: "I ran the fan on the sand", and so on; initially, single letters are introduced in isolation and children are expected to respond with one consonant and two phonemes, etc. The DISTAR Language Program also takes as correct only full answers to questions, when these are in fact rarely used in normal discourse, eliptical responses being much more frequent, appropriate, and culturally normative.

In sum, the DISTAR Programs are based upon behaviouristic language acquisition principles, which modern evidence indicates to be inadequte and inappropriate, and the materials developed upon this model display many unacceptable features for use with hearing-impaired children.

Some materials do not provide an explicit theoretical statement of the principles upon which they were developed. For instance, many workbooks or exercise books from various kinds of programmes fall into this category (e.g., The Printed Word (Miller, 1976) and Lessons in Syntax (McCarr, 1973). In order to evaluate the usefulness of such materials for hearing-impaired children, careful consideration needs to be given to the types of items which are used, the sequence in which they are introduced, and the value of these in terms of common usage and cultural normality, as well as whether they follow what is known of the normal developmental process. From such an examination, some of the materials may be used in the way the authors wrote them, or arranged in different sequences, or parts of them may be used and others rejected, or a mixture of all of these decisions may be made.

Some materials do clearly state a set of theoretical principles which are inappropriate or which in fact do not reflect what happens when the materials are used. We believe this to be the case with the Oral Language Program produced by Gloria Tate (1971). It is stated in the manual, for example, that language is a "habit of mind" that is learnt through drill and repetition. As we have noted above, we would reject this as a model of how language is learned. However, when the materials are examined, it is seen that the child is (in fact) never expected to give a rote response. There is always a contrast, from which the pupil has to discover the underlying "rule". The sequence of structures introduced closely follows what is known of the normal developmental sequence in a way that is remarkable given the state of the research in this area at the time the materials were developed. Thus many teachers find it appropriate to use the Tate materials, even though they would reject the theoretical basis upon which they are said to rest.

As an example of the kind of way in which a theoretical model for developmental materials which is stated but inappropriate needs to be rejected, and some aspects of the actual materials need also to be rejected, we would cite the Apple Tree materials (Caniglia, Cole, Krohn & Rice, 1975). The Apple Tree materials are based upon a transformational-generative grammar theoretical base, and include the teaching of the symbols of this system as a meta-language. There is emphasis also on massive repetition or over-learning of materials essentially out of the context of authentic use. As we have noted above, we would reject these as principles for language learning, but we would feel that despite these fundamental weaknesses, the Apple Tree workbooks and readers can be used as resources for worksheets, although care would still need to be taken that the exercises do not become an "algebra" with the "baking-in" of sets of sentences which are highly culturally inappropriate (non-authentic) and not related to the child's normal language use and needs.

Similarly, some teachers may wish to reject the theoretical model which brings the TSA Syntax Program (Quigley and Power, 1980-81) to provide behavioural objectives for its language teaching, but the materials can equally well be used without adherence to the theory or practical implications underlying behavioural objectives.

In the field of Teaching English as a Second Language particularly, many materials seem to be organised in a sequence that is based more upon historical precedent than any theoretical basis of normal development or common use. Learning English in Australia (1973-76)

would appear to be one such, where no theoretical basis for the development of the materials is stated. However, there is a wide variety of activities used in these materials and they are an excellent resource if used in a selective manner. The order of sequencing, for example, is poor and it cannot be assumed that the materials can be used in the sequence given in the books, as some materials which appear, for example, in Book Five are less difficult than something that appears earlier in Book One, and so forth.

An outstanding example of materials which were designed for use with a population such that they are not directly transferrable to hearing-impaired pupils, are the Challenges materials produced by a team from the University of Lancaster. These materials were designed for the teaching of English to upper high school pupils in Europe, and as such cannot readily be transposed into the teaching of pupils who are hearing-impaired. However, as examples of materials developed upon authentic use of themes and topics at appropriate interest levels, they exemplify in an outstanding manner the principles upon which thematic and topical materials can be developed, and we highly recommend the study of the principles to teachers who wish to develop materials for teaching language to deaf children. They are also outstanding in their use of the concept of mediengerechtheit in that the use of printed, auditory and auditory-visual materials is authentic. For example, simulated radio interviews are used and audiotapes, posters and other printed matter are designed by professionals to reflect authentic language use, and so forth.

Thus the Challenges model is an excellent basis for materials development and one we should try to emulate as taking out pragmatic and other features of language in use. It is a good example of a language program in which all levels of language use are focussed on simultaneously (Abbs and Sexton, 1978).

In Appendix F of Power (1981) we provided a method of evaluating materials for teaching handicapped children distributed by the United States National Center on Educational Media and Materials for the Handicapped. It need not be followed slavishly, but as an aide memoire of the kind of factors which should be taken into account when evaluating the appropriateness of materials, teachers will find it helpful.

PRINCIPLES FOR ASSESSING AND DEVELOPING MATERIALS FOR EVALUATING HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS' COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Preamble:

We consider that evaluation of pupils' behaviour is an invasion of their rights to privacy unless it can be demonstrated that the results of the evaluation will provide information of positive value to those concerned with the welfare of the child, or children in general. While it is recognised that there are valid reasons for pupil evaluation for educational and vocational guidance and therapy, it is considered that classroom evaluation techniques are defensible only to the extent that they can be shown to be a contribution to the teacher's pedagogical task, i.e., that they provide diagnostic information on the pupil's status on the particular matter under consideration, such that it will enable the teacher to better plan a sequence of work for the pupil which will enable that pupil to move closer to the target communicative

competence which is included in a program designed on the principles we have outlined above.

In keeping with the levels and strategies approach to communicative competence teaching which we have outlined, we believe that monitoring and evaluation should be carried out at all of the phonological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic levels. Monitoring of pupil progress at these levels should take place in all the three teaching settings of conversation, activities, and specific teaching.

Evaluation should not be considered only to take the form of a standardized test. It should be realised that there are other approaches to evaluation of communicative competence (such as corpus analysis procedures like LARSP (Crystal, Fletcher & Garman, 1976) which should be utilised routinely by teachers. In general, given the stance we have taken above, we would believe that when commercially-produced standardised tests are used, they should be criterion-referenced in order to be able to give the teacher useful diagnostic information about the pupil which will enable planning for pupil progress to take place. (However, we do recognise that for placement and research purposes, norm-referenced tests may have a place as part of a larger battery of evaluative materials).

Given the types of teaching strategies for communicative development that we have outlined, we believe that teachers should use a wide variety of evaluation instruments, including standardised tests, teacher-devised tests, and the intuitive responses of the teacher, as well as more or less systematic observations, whether formalised in various available or specially-constructed checklists, and so forth.

We also emphasise strongly that in discussing the evaluation of hearing-impaired pupils' communicative competence, we believe that traditional ways of measurement (such as the norm-referenced standardized achievement tests that we have mentioned above) are too focussed upon hearing-impaired children's incompetence, largely because most of them are oriented towards the needs of hearing pupils. Hence any results obtained from such tests must be seen as representing probably only a lower bound of a hearing-impaired child's skills.

For this reason, we recommend techniques which essentially are criterion-referenced towards competencies needed to cope with language in authentic everyday use. Such techniques are increasingly available at the phonological level (Ling, 1976) and the syntactic level (LARSP; Crystal, Fletcher & Garman, 1976; the TSA; Quigley, Steinkamp, Power & Jones, 1976) but we find a dearth of measures at the semantic and pragmatic levels, a deficiency that badly needs to be remedied, because we tend not to be aware of the often high level of pragmatic skills of hearing-impaired children, because such skills have not been adequately conceptualised and hence cannot be well monitored. The situational testing approaches outlined by Miller (in press) and Power and Hollingshead (1978; Appendix C of Power, 1981) may be the beginnings of adequate monitoring processes in the pragmatics area.

Principles

Whatever form of assessment is used, the following principles should be kept in mind:

1. The test should test what it purports to test, i.e., it should be valid.

2. The degree to which the test is capable of indicating directions for planning for teaching further communication competencies should be clear and determinable.

3. Administration of the test:

    1. the required expertise of the test administrator should be assessed.

    2. the time, effectiveness, and environment required for the test administration and evaluation should be determined.

    3. whether the test requires individual or group administration should be ascertained.

    4. the degree of preparation and follow-up for the teacher should be assessed and in-service training provided where necessary.

4. The mode of instruction and response should be suitable for the test population.

5. The cultural authenticity of the test should be assessed.

6. The test should be so constructed that the test experience need not be a negative one for the child.

7. The test should be age- and stage-appropriate to the child.

8. Where appropriate, the child should be made aware of the purpose of the test.

9. It should be determined whether alterations to a test (for example from the oral to the written mode, or vice versa) will destroy its validity.

10. When used with hearing-impaired pupils, great care must be taken in interpreting the results of tests normed on a hearing population.

We would note also that the techniques given in Appendix F of Power (1981) for evaluating materials for teaching handicapped children can readily be adapted to evaluate material for assessing them and monitoring their progress.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE IN YOUNG DISABLED CHILDREN

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Within the history of special education approaches to language development, there have been two competing "meta-theories" about how language development for disabled children is best managed. By and large, one or another of two approaches has been adopted. On one hand, it has been considered that the language disabled child's problem is such that he needs special procedures and techniques to overcome the problems which he has in language learning. There is a long history of that approach, ranging from such special "prostheses" as the Fitzgerald Key and the Barry Five Slate System (Moores, 1978) in education of the deaf to DISTAR which is used in both special and general education.

On the other hand, there has been an approach which takes the line that if one approximates as closely as possible the normal processes and circumstances of language acquisition then one will be doing the optimum for the disabled child, even though his disability may impose some problems for his learning.

In general, the position that we are putting forward in this paper is the second of these : that, as a general theory of development of disabled children, if one can determine and adhere to the normal processes of language acquisition then one will be providing the optimum conditions for the disabled language learner.

What is meant, then, by "normal language development"? Firstly, it can be said that normal language development means that the language of the child should be "age-appropriate" in form, content and function. Secondly, recent theory implies that there are epigenetic stages in language development : each stage grows out of preceeding stages and later learning will not take place as efficiently (if at all) unless these earlier stages have been proceeded through. Thirdly, there is the notion of development of competence in communication. Fourthly, we think that content and function in language are almost inseparable and precede form, both proximally (as regards what the child is saying at any given moment) and also distally, in that epigenetic process of development mentioned above. This last has been very well summed up in the theorem of Slobin (1973) which says that "New forms first express old functions and new functions are first expressed in old forms [p. 184]". We will come back to that notion several times through this paper, as it has strong implications for development of communication in language disabled children. McLean and Snyder-McLean (1978) express a very similar notion when they say, "Language is first acquired as a means of achieving already existing communication functions. These preverbal functions seem to be directly related to the functional or pragmatic aspect of later language [p. 78]".

Preverbal communication functions seem to be related to the

functional uses of later language and therefore we need to draw the important distinction between communication and language. Language is required for verbal communication and has its roots in preverbal precursors of language which need to be taken into account in any epigenetic theory of language development.

Let us look, then, at the three aspects of language : the form, the content, and the function.

Form we will say little about in this paper. It can be taken, for most purposes, to mean the "surface structure" of the utterance (both syntactically and phonologically).

As far as content is concerned, it is, in general terms, what is talked about by the individual communicating and involves relationships among the entities referred to. Probably function is the most important thing that should be stressed, because we believe there is a balance which needs to be redressed as far as the relationship between form and function is concerned; the functional aspects of language use are, perhaps, even more important than the form in which they are expressed. The functional aspect of language is best summed up as being "the purposes to which language is put or the purposes for which it is being used". McLean and Snyder-McLean (1978) point out that it is not enough to have form : "in order for a child to use language the child must have not only something to say [content] and a way to say it [form] but also a reason to say it [p. 48] ... Language is acquired because, and only if, the child has a reason to talk [p. 78]".

All too often, programs which have been used in developing language in disabled children have concentrated on giving the child something to say and the form in which to say it, without giving the child a reason for saying it. The linguistically competent child must learn all three of these aspects of language : he must learn the functions of language (and it will be argued that functions are epigenetically prior to standard form); he must learn content (he must have something to talk about); and he must also come to use the normal standard forms of the language.

Given that these are the kinds of things that normally developing infants need to learn and do learn, one can ask, "How does the normally developing infant learn these things?"

Function, we would argue, can only be learned in meaningful authentic settings (Power, 1981). Epigenetically, function's earliest expressions are not in verbal terms but in vocal and manual "gestures" and other "body acts" used to achieve goals, used as instruments for getting what one wants in the way that Halliday (1975) has talked about. He proposes that "Nigel's first attempts at communication were in gesture and vocal (non-verbal) means" and Piaget (1926) similarly talks about the "instrumental use" of gesture. Function can only be learned by the child's engagement in communicative acts with responsive others, and as Byers and Byers (1972) have said :

> Learning skilled performances and accumulating knowledge are not substitutes for acquiring competence in managing human relations. When this is applied to the education of children, we believe that the only way communication is learned is

> through the full involvement of the adult, the parent, or the teacher, with the child. To talk to, to read to, to lecture at - these are not participation. They are not at all communication involvement. They are performances by adults for children. In order for a child to acquire competence in the full range of human communication, some adults in his world must "take him seriously" in direct human involvement. Only then can a child begin to imitate adult communication behaviour and learn it through the process of corrective feedback. Only then can a child discover meaning and values in the messages and subject matter he is being taught and only then can he discover himself in the world of people [p. 29].

This accurately summarizes the relationship between form, function, and content in language learning, and for disabled language learners, as for others, function is primary, and form and content grow out of the need to express one's-self about something in one's world. Bruner (1975) and others have suggested what the preverbal precursors of the kinds of communicative interaction we're talking about may be like; the child, in a sense, is able to learn language because he has already learned conversational interaction skills, "one person has the speaking turn at a time"; "listen when the other person speaks"; "speak when the other person isn't speaking", and so forth. These are all learned skills. They are not ones that the infant has "built-in" and these kinds of learnings take place in non-verbal modes some months before recognisable verbal language begins to emerge.

It is an interesting question in this context to ask why language proceeds to higher and more complex levels at all? Brown (1973) has pointed out in an interesting passage that very often the small infant's cries, gurgles, glugs, shrugs, tugs and pulls will get him most of the things that he wants. Brown says that we don't really know why the child proceeds to higher levels of complexity of language when relatively more primitive forms will usually get what he wants.

We don't think it's quite that obscure. Bruner (1980), as so often, has a delightful phrase for this process. He says that the reason why children proceed to higher levels of complexity is that mother "ups the ante". She pushes the child along towards more complex language when she feels that he is capable. In many ways, we think that the task for us as teachers and clinicians working with the disabled language learner is to know when to "up the ante". It is a very difficult business. It is a difficult task for a teacher of the deaf or a teacher of the intellectually handicapped or a teacher of any other disabled language learner to be able to keep that nice distance ahead, appropriately upping the ante. We seem to have a very good set of acquired skills as far as ordinary children are concerned and we are able to automatically up the ante at the right moment and keep that nice distance ahead. One of the most difficult tasks we face in special education settings is to up the ante to just he right level at the right time, because that gap between performance and age with the disabled language learner seems to throw us off course. Experience and intuition suggest that there are rules that apply to upping the ante, but it is something that urgently requires research.

We would see this upping the ante in order to extend the complexity of the child's language skills as being central to normal language acquisition and also for the language acquisition of disabled learners.

It becomes an important question to ask how does the mother decide when an utterance is acceptable or not, and how does she decide whether she should up the ante at this particular time. The phrase that is used often in the literature in this regard is that mother is "tuned" to the child's utterances; tuned to the extent that she unconsciously monitors the balance of content, function, and form in the child's utterances and if, for example, she feels that in a particular child utterance both content and function are well established, she may then encourage (in ways that we'll examine later) the child to use a more complex form. When the mother is confident that the child has the function under control she is not averse to putting some pressure on the child to improve the complexity and level of the forms in which he expresses that function. When she feels that the child has not yet got that function under control, she will not demand higher levels of correctness of form. Again, that is something that we have not handled well as far as the disabled language learner is concerned; we have been too concerned with form at the expense of the development of functions. We are probably all familiar with that literature which indicates that if one does concentrate on form too soon, too early, one gets that "impenetrability of grammar" that David McNeil (1970) has talked about; that famous exchange which is often quoted in which a child comes to mother and says:

Child : Nobody don't like me

Mother : No, say "nobody likes me"

Child : Nobody don't like me

.
.
.

(eight repetitions of this dialogue)

.
.
.

Mother : No, now listen carefully:
say "nobody likes me"

Child : Oh! Nobody don't likes me [p. 106].

McNeil thought that impenetrability of grammar made "correction" ineffective unless the child's pre-existing rules were ready to accept change.

Well, how does the mother go about obtaining a higher level of contribution from the child? Most naive mothers (naive in the sense of not having had any linguistic or psycholinguistic training) we now know well from the literature, do not go around correcting their children. In fact, it is becoming very clear from the literature that direction and correction of children's language may be entirely counter-productive and we think there are lessons for us, as special educators, to learn from that literature. Nelson (1973), for example, has shown that during the early stages of language development, direction is counter-productive. She says, "Active control and premature differential enforcement retards rather than advances progress. It is the generally accepting mother who appears to be most facilitative; selective responding, for example, correcting early errors is unproductive [p. 113]". Similarly, Bruner (1975) observes that

correction may inhibit the child's development of the language and not improve it, '"it is often the case that mother's correction of a 'mismatch' inhibits the interchange [p. 15]". You may recall that UNESCO once asked a number of outstanding child development theorists to write a book expressing their views on how child development proceeds. The book that Piaget (1973) wrote in answer to that commission was called To Understand is to Invent, and there is a clear indication right throughout Piagetian theory that one must, as it were, invent one's world -- in our context, invent one's language anew for oneself. The child must come to, and formulate, his own rules and not have them imposed upon him. Bowerman (1978) says a similar kind of thing in talking about a language training session in a special education context, "In the typical language training session the therapist continually directs the child's attention and asks him to focus on certain materials, whether they happen to capture his interest at the moment or not. In addition, she provides constant feedback on the accuracy of his performance. These are exactly the kinds of interruptions that appear to be the least conducive for language development ... [p. 174; stress added]". We feel that there are quite clear implications for the inappropriateness of the more directive and "constructivist" (Van Uden, 1978; p. 285) approaches to language teaching as far as that kind of research evidence is concerned. Mothers obtain the language that they feel the child is capable of by the quality and nature of their responses to the child in conversation. Maternal responses act as feedback to the child regarding the effectiveness and correctness of his contribution. This feedback operates in and through the dialogue and does not have any metalinguistic character. We will not take the time this afternoon to develop the notions of expansion, expatiation, modelling and the other kinds of interactive conversational aspects of language development that are now well established in the literature (Power, 1975; Snow and Ferguson, 1977).

Via these processes, the child's language develops normally, but implicit in all of this is that both parties in the language development task (mother and infant in the paradigm case) need to be competent partners. They both need to be able to bring something to the language learning task, and if either of them is "incompetent", then the process of language learning may not proceed normally. (We won't be too concerned today with the "incompetent" mother, although obviously some mothers are much better than others at upping the ante, thus developing the child's language and increasing his communicative skills. In any setting, in the regular school, in special education, or in the early intervention setting in particular, the mother's skills are something that one needs to be very concerned with and constitute a set of problems of their own. We are just going to remind ourselves that these problems exist, and then pass over them. We want to concentrate this afternoon on the child as an "incompetent" partner.)

Cross and her Melbourne group (Cross, Kirkman, Nienhuys, Horsborough and Johnston-Morris, 1981) have been working for some time now with language-delayed children and their mothers, and hearing-impaired children and their mothers, and she goes so far as to speak of the incompetent child producing a "crippled communication dyad". Thus, the kinds of interactive difficulties that occur for these children in language learning may be in a downward spiral, so that as the child becomes less and less competent vis-a-vis his age-mates, so the mother becomes less and less competent to deal with his decreasing

rate of growth of competence. The effect of this may "maintain" the child's language disability (Bloom and Lahey, 1978). An essential task of early intervention in language, and in general social and cognitive development as well, is to prevent this crippling "maintaining effect" in the communication dyad when the child has what Bloom and Lahey call a "precipitating condition" for a language disorder. Whether that precipitating condition is hearing impairment, brain damage, moderate or severe mental retardation, cerebral palsy, or some other cause, how can deleterious outcomes of interaction (maintaining factors) be prevented? The very interaction between mother and the language disabled learner may result in environmental conditions that maintain and exacerbate the problems that already exist.

We think that to gain some insight into answers to that question, we need to look at the whole notion of "incompetence". What does it mean to say that a child is incompetent? It is quite clear that all children are incompetent linguistically when compared with adults; decreasingly so as they develop more and more closely towards standard adult levels. Some children are incompetent when compared with their age peers and that comes back to the notion of "age-appropriateness" with which we introduced this paper. At some point on that continuum of incompetence this non-equivalence to age-peer development becomes a "language disability".

Incompetence may well be an outcome of unsuccessful interactions between the child and his environment. Early intervention can thus be seen as the provision of an environment which will maximize the child's competence.

As intervention is the provision of an environment which will facilitate or maximize the child's competence, it is, then, a reasonable question to ask how we recognize the "competence- facilitating environment". As yet, we have very few measures of what one might call the "proximal" characteristics of that environment; we have not yet got very many good measures of whether what one has just said to an infant was facilitating or not. However, the characteristics of the normal environment are becoming clearer (Snow and Ferguson, 1978; Waterson and Snow, 1978; Nelson, 1973; Cross et al., 1981). This literature has now become quite large and we are increasing our knowledge of the characteristics of the normal environment. There are descriptions now available of the kind of interactions that normally take place between infants and mothers, and as these become clearer we may be able to develop from them some measures of the adequacy of a linguistic environment. Many of us who are experienced clinicians or teachers may believe that we have a good "feel" for a facilitating environment, but those of us who have been placed in the situation of advising mothers on how to go about facilitating the language and communication of their children feel very much at a loss as to what exactly to say to a mother about what she should do in a particular interaction.

In a broader sense, as far as the "distal" characteristics of the linguisitic environment are concerned, we do have simple measures, and we will come back to talk about some of these below.

Another central issue we want to address, and one that is still unresolved, is whether we should provide normal conditions for the "abnormal" child, or whether the presence of an abnormal child necessitates the provision of an abnormal language environment. This

comes back to what was noted above : the notion that there are competing theories as to whether the environment needs to be changed because of the child's precipitating disabling condition, or whether an environment as close as possible to the normal language learning environment will be the optimum environment also for the language disabled child. It is our belief that if one gets as close as one possibly can to the normal environment, and the characteristics of the normal environment, one is providing the optimum for many disabled language learners. We are not among those who would say there ae across-the-board general principles of remediating learning disabilities. We think that it does make a difference as to whether the precipitating condition is severe intellectual handicap or hearing impairment (without additional intellectual handicap) and that it may not be advisable to seek one single approach for children with language learning problems.

At the same time, we think that some general principles may be applicable to specific cases. One proposal that might be put forward in this area is what we call "The Principle of Minimal Change", and we think that this is one we need to consider in special education settings. The Principle of Minimal Change implies that we should change the environment of the disabled language learner only as much as is absolutely necessary, leaving other aspects as unchanged as possible. What does that mean? Let us give you an example from our own field which is education of the hearing-impaired. We obviously cannot here address all of the arguments in favour of introducing Total Communication, a manual supplement to oral education, for significantly hearing-impaired children, but we think a good example of the Principle of Minimal Change is the necessity, as we would se it, to introduce Total Communication to a significantly hearing-impaired child from the age of diagnosis. In doing that, one in a sense "abnormalizes" the environment by introducing to the significantly hearing-impaired child a quite obviously "abnormal" method of communication. However, the provision of this communication method allows mother and infant to more easily and meaningfully interact, one with the other. It seems unnecessary, for example, to exhort the mother to "imitate" the child's attempts at communication since such maternal behaviour may well interfere with the natural process of interaction. Thus one doesn't want to change the kinds of interactions that mothers have with hearing-inpaired infants, and traditional guidance procedures have done just that. (It might be noted at this juncture that some of the most linguistically competent deaf children are those of hearing-impaired signing parents who presumably have normal communicative interactions with them, albeit in Sign Language instead of speech.) We have tended to sit mothers down with two-year-olds and four-year-olds and have them doing quite formal lessons with the speech trainer on the table, and so forth. Those procedures abnormalize the "interaction" enviroment. Change only what is necessary (in this case, add signing and fingerspelling to the communication matrix) in order to be able to retain the interactions that are crucial to language development.

We would argue that in many of the more structuralist and behaviourist programs that we have used and are using, there is a danger that these programs change too many aspects of the interactive process so that the situation becomes more deviant, too different. This will, therefore, lead to non-authenticity of the language learning environment (Power, 1981) and produce just those maintaining conditions that Bloom and Lahey (1978) refer to. These conditions institutionalise the precipitating condition and lead to the deviant language and social

behaviours which have been noted with many handicapped groups; with handicap becoming, as it were, a way of life.

Another general epigenetic principle that we need to consider is that programming for language development must go back before the development of words. To follow normal developmental stages as closely as possible, and in particular to ensure the child's authentic involvement in his language learning situation, the child must be allowed to lead and the mother must be willing to follow. There is research evidence that the younger the child and the less competent the child is, the more the mother follows him, rather than vice versa. The older the child and the more competent the child, the freer mother feels to lead him, because she can be reasonably confident that he will be able to follow. When she knows through that process of feedback that is continually going on between mother and infant, that he is not yet competent, she follows him.

If one thinks that functional use of language is a central aspect that needs to be developed in children, one could reasonably ask what the targets should be as far as teaching is concerned. In this regard, there are categorizations available, from relatively simple ones like that of Halliday (1975) to the more complex functions outlined by Tough (1977); and summarized well by McLean and Snyder-McLean (1978).

As far as what emphasis should be placed upon the development of language forms, the Epigenetic Principle offers another generalisation : the forms expected of a child should be age- and environment-appropriate. The literature and our own experience indicate that children do not immediately use standard forms, but gradually approach them through stages formed from their approximations and feedback from the linguistic environment. We do not expect mature terms from ordinary children immediately, nor should we expect them from the language disabled child of the same age. (Indeed, because of his "precipitating condition" we should give him considerable age leeway in development of form.)

A principle that is often overlooked, particularly with more severely disabled children, is that form need only be "environment-appropriate". By this we mean that not all children should be expected to develop all standard forms. An experienced judgement needs to be made as to the likely demands of the child's future environment as far as language is concerned, and developmental demands for formal correctness based upon that. A pressing research need in this area is to examine the demands of the "daily round" of disabled people to enable us to set realistically achievable and necessary goals for their curricula (in many areas other than language also; Power, 1981). (One must be careful, of course, to continually review these expectations in order to keep them as appropriate as possible.)

Let us summarise by saying that four principles seem to us to emerge from the recent language literature and research:

(i) The Epigenetic Principle: we need to follow a normal developmental line and look back on the stages of normal development in order to determine what are appropriate levels and stages of developmental language to expect of the disabled child.

(ii) The Principle of Minimal Change: as far as possible we would

introduce into a language learning environment only those changes which are absolutely necessary in order to normalise and maintain the normality of that language learning environment.

(iii) The Principle of Age- and Environment-Appropriate Form Demands: expectations of the level of form demanded of the child should be realistically attuned to his capacities, age and living environment.

(iv) The Principle of Maternal Following: which says that the mother should follow the lead of the younger and/or less competent child in order to be sure that meaningful communication is taking place.

Let us finish by quoting Brown (1977), who, as so often, expresses well what all this amounts to:

> How can a concerned mother facilitate her child's learning of language? My answer ... is as follows: "Believe that your child can understand more than he or she can say, and seek, above all, to communicate. To understand and be understood. To keep your minds fixed on the same target. In doing that, you will, without thinking about it, make 100 or maybe 1000 alterations in your speech and action. Do not try to practise them as such. There is no set of rules of how to talk to a child that can even approach what you unconsciously know. If you concentrate on communicating, everything else will follow [p. 26]".

This is the attitude and practice that we need to be inducing in mothers of children with language-learning problems in order to maximize the opportunities of those children to learn to communicate.

ISSUES RAISED BY SOME RECENT RESEARCH FOR THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE TO HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS

By

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To Van Uden (1977) we owe the insight that communication and conversation and not "language" per se hold the key to the success of the hearing-impaired child. The "Maternal Reflexive" method is derived from the mother-child interaction model so familiar to us from recent research. His emphasis on the seizing method - grasping the child's meanings and evoking responses - sits well with notions that conversations are reciprocal acts, as is his concern that we follow the child's interests and experiences and make these the jumping-off point for activities.

Although there may be concerns about the level of intrusiveness that Van Uden recommends that the teacher introduce into his "linguistic conversation lessons" and the child's possible interpretation of teacher responses as correction of form rather than acceptance of ideas; nevertheless his work has been seminal and because of this it was a great tribute to get from him the following letter in response to our first report:

> I will forward [the report] to our staff members in order to be stimulated to work harder and harder! I agree with very many parts of the topics, most of all with putting conversation into the centre of the whole learning and teaching of language. I very much agree with your remarks on "Daily Round", pragmatics and teaching style. I am thinking of these typical points:
>
> 1. We make a distinction between so-called "heart-to-heart conversational lessons" and "linguistic conversational lessons". In the first ones, the full emphasis is upon the development of empathy, and in the latter ones "salt is put on every snake" and the children know that.
>
> 2. Another, in our opinion, very important point is to make "deposits" of the conversations (as many as possible) in reading lessons, always in normal language with many direct quotations (visualised conversations), orectic language, etc.
>
> 3. It is a real art of the teacher to evoke conversation sometimes by provoking the children as a journalist is doing in an interview.
>
> 4. The structure of the language should be learning in a reflecting way by discovery learning, of course guided discovering learning.

A main point in my thinking while reading this report, was:

What about mainstreamed pre-lingually profoundly deaf children? The itinerant teachers must be very expert ones, both in developing good speech and developing natural language. It may interest you to know that some research is going on in our institution:

(a) the development of a new lipreading test, "a conversational lipreading test"

(b) the efficiency of communication and interaction of a mother with a still speechless pre-lingually profoundly deaf child in the early ages.

(c) the teaching style of the classroom.

(d) sensori-motor integration disturbance.

With very many kind regards, yours sincerely, A. Van Uden.

I think three points stand out from these remarks

(a) The notion of "heart-to-heart" conversation where the full emphasis is upon the development of empathy fits well with our ideas of "conversation".

(b) In relation to language use in learning, the model of "provoking" children as a journalist does in an interview fits well with the model of interaction in task oriented situations, as of course does "discovery learning".

(c) The phrase "put salt on every snake" fits well with our rationale for specific language teaching. In these teaching situations our concern is with the idea of encouraging children to reflect upon the processes and functions of language use.

In regard to the conversational approach, we need guidelines for what constitutes an authentic conversational interaction which include content, form, function and interactional exchange. We can look at conversational exchanges in terms of content: e.g., ideas, topics, and levels of interest, and judge success in terms of whether an exchange of ideas occurs, i.e., is the communication understandable or not? In form we need to consider features such as statement, question, command. In exchanges we need to consider who initiates, who responds, who comments. We also need to consider the functions of utterances within a conversation. Reference to functions involves the pragmatics of discourse where the units are, for example, speech acts or conversational turns. We need to consider whether the purpose of an interchange is to argue, to explain or to agree. Children learn to perform a variety of functions using many different forms. Typically we perceive that questions will be asked in question form: However, questions do not always start with a "wh" word or in the case of yes/no questions, with an auxiliary. In everyday situations it is very obvious that many other utterances that do not have the syntactic form of a question function as questions, e.g., "You like it?". So the interrelationship between form and function is very important. These distinctions are most important in specific teaching programs where children may be taught that to ask a question you use a particular syntactic construction, a fact that is not always valid in real world language use.

As a general rule, conversations have a degree of informality. (Although we can all think of situations which involve very formal conversations.) Conversations that are informal often involve sharing experiences or interesting happenings. Conversation involves an interchange of ideas, having a genuine need to share ideas, experiences and aspirations. Conversation has been described as a "dialogue of discovery". Through such experience one individual discovers another. This may appear quite obvious. However, when we look at the sort of exchanges that purport to be "conversations" in language programs in schools we may not see the empathy, supportiveness, nurturance, familiarity or openness that characterise the typical conversational interchange. Most conversational exchanges are between intimates. This kind of conversational exchange involves a degree of intimacy that runs very uneasily alongside the teacher/pupil role. Traditionally teachers' role expectations involve notions of dominance, discipline, and authority. These are artifacts of education as an institition in our culture, and yet over-riding this is the need for hearing-impaired children to develop skills in conversation. The environment where this is most likely to be fostered is one in which the child has ample opportunity to experience conversational interchanges. In many ways the mother/child interaction model contrasts with the teacher/pupil interaction model: there is a mismatch of features between how mothers interact with their children and how teachers interact with their pupils.

How can we develop the conversational component of the communication curriculum? It is not just a matter of slotting conversation into language sessions.

The attributes of a good conversation are spontaneity, fluency, respect of others' ideas, concerned listening, a pleasant tone of voice, topics of mutual interest, well-distributed participation (so that one person isn't dominating), turn taking, maintaining interest, consideration of the feelings of others, sharing experiences and expanding ideas. We can include these attributes in a language program. First we can introduce particular topics, for example family life, human relationships - the kinds of topics that arise in pastoral care seem to trigger these kinds of motivations if both teacher and children are open and concerned. Second, we can monitor interactions, and make judgements about how successful conversations are. We can also involve pupils in making similar judgements. An activity might involve discussing just these features, e.g., children may discuss the features of good conversations, dramatize conversations, discuss topics of conversation, compare telephone conversations, record or recall TV conversations, transcribe a conversation, suggest different kinds of situations for conversation, etc. For instance, in an emergency situation, you could be reporting a fire or a lost dog; you could be calling an ambulance or a doctor; you could be inviting a friend to dinner or a party, or to stay. You could be calling a friend to talk about a party; a movie or a football game; you could be asking a friend about his health; you could be asking mother's permission to visit a friend or to see a movie. What is the value in doing something like that? Why not just have conversations? Why take something like the "conversation" and stand back from it and discuss it? This involves both teacher and pupil reflecting on "talk" as a topic. Children's level of awareness is raised when they can talk about talk.

Month by month a hearing child masters new vocabulary, and

discovers, then applies new syntactic rules. Useful though this may be, vocabulary and syntax are not all the child needs. His central need is communication through interaction with other people. His language must mirror his sensitivity to the perspective and knowledge of his listeners. During the pre-school period language gains flexibility, until in any given situation the child has many options of style, manner and grammatical form that he can use for his own purposes. Along with greater flexibility comes greater reflection, with a steady improvement in the ability to think about language, to meet it as an entity and to gain conscious control over the medium itself. Formal schooling brings new demands on the child, new consciousness of language as he learns to read and write. In his expanding repetoire the child has a mastery of whole sets of forms and functions. He is able to choose in certain situations which forms and functions to use. In different situations he will switch and the effects of this switching flow into all levels of language: phonologic, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic. In From communication to curriculum Barnes (1975) writes about language use in terms of "constraints". He describes the use of communication in the classroom, how children learn through communicating with each other. He emphasises the development of different patterns of interaction and different patterns of learning.

> The systems by which we organise or interpret experience can be changed not only by new experiences, but representing old experiences anew ..... once we see a man creating a representation of his world, so that he may operate in it, another world of activity is open to him. He may operate directly on the representation itself. Such representation must depend on a symbol system, either natural language or some other. This operating upon the representation is what I call reflection .... the idea of changing knowledge by reflecting on it, by verbalising it, or some other way.

To put this in practical terms consider activities where children watch videos of different interactions where they are encouraged to analyse or to talk to other children about "What is going on in this situation?" - or in teacher's terms: Talk about an interaction is a means of developing children's competence at discourse level.

There are a variety of interaction patterns that can be observed in classrooms. One of the ways to analyse this is to ask people what goes on in their classroom. Teachers can be given a grid (see Figure 5, p.) and asked to fill in how frequently particular interactions occur. Similarly, teachers can use a list of "types of talk" to children in their classes using language functions. These are just two examples of ways of plotting the kinds of interaction patterns that go on in classrooms; the kinds of functions that children use in classrooms. It is important to direct attention to these areas, because these are areas of curriculum that are very often neglected. Teachers rarely seem concerned about classroom interaction patterns or types of talk.

Audio- or video- tapes can give a good idea of such basic things as who talks most. This can be considered in relation to teacher dominance. Of course, in some situations "teacher talk" has to be valued. In other words, teacher talk has to be evaluated carefully.

Last year (Power, 1984) we talked about "authenticity", and about conversational language, because we were concerned about what goes on in

classrooms. We felt a great need for children to move out of classrooms. However, we should not assume that what goes on in classrooms is necessarily limiting or restricting. Even for instance, is the teacher-dominated or "ring-master" situation (i.e., not one in which children sit through hours of really inhibiting experience) setting children back? We need to view the classroom situation and the school as being authentic settings. Barnes (1975) explains this well.

> Of course it's not only in classrooms that people talk to one another. Outside in the street, in shops, in buses, in offices and on building sites, people are constantly talking. No doubt we could frame rules for what a shopkeeper can say to his customers, without going beyond "shopkeeper" and becoming a "fellow human being". Even these temporary relationships are potentially infinite, capable of developing new common meanings as acquaintanceship becomes friendship and so on. In one way, schools are different, because unlike shop, bus and building sites, <u>they are there purely for talk</u>. A school by its very nature is a place where communication goes on : that is what it is for. Education is a form of communication [p. 14].

We must avoid seeing schools solely as the radical educationalists, e.g., the de-schoolers, would have us do. School is part of our culture. Indeed education is a part of any culture and communication is absolutely integral to that. So we need to look at the problems in different ways.

Child learning and teacher style appear to be clearly related. Barnes describes two different teaching philosophies and two subsequent teaching styles. The "transmission teacher" is reminiscent of Paulo Friere's "teacher as depositor" in what he calls the "banking concept" of education. Here the teacher has all the knowledge; the child is the empty vessel with the teacher's task to overcome this shortfall by series of deposits of knowledge. Barnes' other model of a teacher is the "interpretation teacher", who sees writing or talking as a means by which we can take an active part in our own learning. E.g., As pupils write, they can, under certain circumstances, re-shape their view of the world, and extend their ability to think rationally about it. He believes the social context in which writing or talking takes place will partly determine whether it performs this function. He tries to ensure that his pupils see their work as relevant to their own purposes and as contributing to a dialogue in which he plays a crucial role. The child's writing is a dialogue between the teacher and the child. He therefore writes replies as well as comments. He gives his pupils' writings the added status of wider publication and he allows them to influence the direction of lessons, thus encouraging pupils to play an active part in the shaping of knowledge.

This leads back to the previous paper where mention was made of the therapy situation where the therapist directs the child to things he is not focussing on and yet in very early mother/child interactions, the mother focuses on what the child is focussing on and she keeps referring to what the child is focussing on. While the child maintains his attention the mother tends to follow his ideas, his motivation if you like. That appears to be a crucial factor in successful early interactions. Barnes (1975) goes on to talk about different kinds of teachers, different views of education, and different views of school

curriculum. Curriculum often means what teachers plan in advance for their pupils to learn, but curriculum made only by teachers would be insubstantial and would not relate well to what children actually learn.

> To become meaningful, a curriculum has to be enacted by pupils, as well as by teachers, all of whom have their private lives outside school. By 'enact' I mean come together in a meaningful communication - talk, write, read books, collaborate, become angry with one another, learn what to say and do and how to interpret what others say and do. A curriculum, as soon as it becomes more than intention, is embodied in the communicative life of an institution, the talk and gestures by which pupils and teachers exchange meanings even when they quarrel and cannot agree. In this sense the curriculum is a form of communication.

In setting up two opposing models of a teacher and in talking specifically about writing Barnes says the "transmission teacher" on the one hand is primarily aware of writing as a means of measuring the pupil's performance against his own expectations and criteria. When he sets written work, his attention is focussed upon what kinds of writing he wants, so that he's careful to ensure that his pupils understand what he wants of them. He assumes that it is his business to define the task for his pupils, and to provide them with information about their success in measuring up to his standards. He values writing as a record to which pupils can later look back, but assumes that they will address it to a general disembodied reader rather than to themselves or him. He believes his main responsibility in receiving pupils writing to be the awarding of a grade. Usually he continues with the lesson which he's already planned; he does not refer it back to pupils' previous work which he regards as completed when he hands back his assessment to the pupils, because culturally the transmission teacher's role entails the notion of authority and dominance.

On the other hand, the "interpretation teacher" sees his task as providing the freedom, experiences, and activities for his pupils to explore their world, to define it, and, if necessary, to "remake" it. This fits very nicely into our model of how teachers may best assist hearing-impaired pupils to develop their language. When parents meet the teacher, what sort of teacher do they expect - a transmission teacher or an interpretation teacher - often a transmission one. This is the stereotypic view. However, it raises really important issues. Given that this is the case, then what we need to develop are new models. We need to convince pupils, their parents, and, indeed, ourselves that the teacher's major function is in interpretation, not transmission.

Complexity

In order to judge how well a child is developing we need to consider what level of complexity he has developed in a variety of areas. One area is linguistic complexity. There are different methods of deciding about linguistic complexity. With complexity at the word level we normally consider how wide the child's vocabulary is. But we are also aware that some words are more complex than others, so it is not just the size of the vocabulary that indicates complexity, e.g., some words, because of their complex meanings, are given greater weight in judging complexity. In phonological complexity, consider how complex

a task it is for a child to acquire language. In order to discover the regularities a child must be able to segment the stream of speech that he hears into its component units, which are the linguistic phonemes. Technology has revealed how very difficult this process is, though most of us would guess it to be trivial. Contrary to popular opinion, there are no necessary pauses between each word and there are no consistent breaks at phrase or sentence boundaries. In fact, speech is easy to segment only when one already knows the units. Discovering the phonemes in a foreign language is a very complex task technically. Even linguists find it difficult to segment language in day-to-day interactions unless they already know the language. At the phonemic level, take for example what is involved with one of the semantic relationships expected quite early in language development - "possession". In English a multitude of possessive relationships are expressed with word order and the possessive "apostrophe s" marked on the first noun. Consider the phrase "great-grandmother's silver teapot", which is marked linguistically in much the same way as "mother's dress", even though great-grandmother may be no longer seen in association with her teapot. Although great- grandmother's teapot has been ours for perhaps three generations, it can still be referred to as "great grandmother's teapot". Similarly, "Daddy's chair", called that because of occasional use but consistent preference, is expressed in the same way as "Daddy's shoe", almost always in contact with Daddy but removed to go to bed, unlike "Daddy's nose". Other languages may have quite different means of expressing these various relationships. As a second language learner, wanting to learn how to mark possessive in the second language, perhaps you will find that only "Daddy's nose" has the function of possessive, marked on the noun. Maybe the other meanings that are conveyed by the possessive marker in English are marked quite differently. The underlying meanings of all "the apostrophe s's" (that many hearing-impaired children never hear) carry not only all the meanings related to possession but also the contracted auxiliary "is" and "has" as in "she's". Overall, there are more than ten syntactic uses of "s' in English without considering the semantic uses.

Hearing-impaired children may begin to mark possession using the timing features that they perceive in an utterance. Semantically they are marking notions like consistent use. Consider chairs in the classroom: although in some cases, a child will let somebody use his chair, very often we will say "My chair", "My nose", and "My shoes". In using "my" as a lexical marker, the child is using possessive often in a variety of uses, although the progress towards "My great-grandmother's teapot" will be longer developing.

When we talk about language form, the levels that we have traditionally looked at include phonological, syntactic and semantic. Semantics seems to be central, as semantics is embedded in all levels. The way you say something is just as important for the meaning as the actual words and the grammatical form that you choose. It is in the area of pragmatics where language use in interactions is quite crucial. Pragmatics involves social understanding. This is a very special kind of knowledge. It includes empathy and presupposition: "Putting yourself in someone else's shoes" considering, "I know that you know ...". This kind of knowledge is crucial. Another aspect of language use involves "knowledge of the world", general knowledge or "common sense". This involves the need for children to know what other people are likely to know: not only to know facts about the world themselves but to have some idea of the facts others are likely to know. When we

talk to somebody, we start from an assumption that they already have some knowledge about what we are going to talk about.

When we consider many handicapped children with language disabilities, the paradoxical problem is the "incompetent person" who interacts with them. The average person is "incompetent" because he cannot make his "normal" assumptions about what that child knows and what that child can do, or how that child will respond in particular circumstances. One has to be able to look at somebody and make a judgement about their age and their likely knowledge, and so forth, to be able to interact with them confidently. The greater the distance from intimacy to stranger, the more incompetent that person becomes, particularly when interacting with somebody who is disabled. So paradoxically, this introduces a further burden, an added area of competence that disabled people need to acquire: the ability to help the other person who perhaps has never before met anyone who is deaf. So the deaf child has to learn not only strategies of communicating in everyday situations with familiar people, but in situations with strangers who are going to be "incompetent" and who are going to need the deaf child's help. Social understanding is an area of knowledge that we need to be aware of in order to build up more appropriate learning situations. The crucial thing is that it is not a particular program we have to plan but a certain view of the problem that will underlie all programs. We need to expand language across the curriculum, to expand communication across the curriculum, and to expand knowledge (including social awareness) across the curriculum as well. This is not something that takes great ingenuity to establish. It is something that just happens as the program develops if teachers are aware that these different areas are crucial in development.

A further area of concern when considering pragmatic factors in communication is rules of speaking, i.e., the acquisition of competence concerning when to speak and when not to speak, where to speak and what to talk about and to whom: e.g., "We talk to people about things you assume they will be interested in". The child acquires the ability to accomplish a repetoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events and to evaluate the accomplishment of these acts by others. So he uses different ways of conveying meaning. He uses different functions and different forms. Much of the research into mother/child interaction started by studying syntax. It was soon realised that to look at syntax you had to decide what the child meant by what he said, e.g., You couldn't discover the grammatical relationships between two words like "Mummy shoe", if you didn't know if the child was saying, e.g., "Mummy's shoe is on the floor", or "Mummy's putting her shoe on". You had to decide on the meaning first. But to get the meaning you had to consider the context, to look at the social situation and what people in that situation were doing and believing. More recent mother/child interaction studies are going back over some of these previous videotapes and analysing them in terms of speech acts or functions instead of just syntax. A speech situation might be a meal or it might be a sports match, and that speech situation has numbers of speech events. A speech event might be anything from a lecture to a joke told at a party. Speech acts can be described in terms such as question and answer or spontaneous or elicited, i.e., if an act demanded a response or whether it merely required a comment.

To return to the notion of complexity, at the pragmatic level, or the communicative level, there is an obvious need to consider complex

abstract knowledge of speakers with regard to other relationships quite distinct from form. If we look at the complexity of the phonemes of the language or at the complexity of syntax we need also to look at the complexity of the various kinds of rules that children operate with in communicative interactions. As soon as the participants change, as soon as the topic changes or the channel changes, e.g., the switch from writing to speech; or the form changes, from linguistic to a non-verbal (or non-linguistic) form, the function and/or the mode changes, e.g., which way are you going to express that function and what form you are going to do it in. So language use slots into an already established communicative competence. This almost analytic view of language needs to be accompanied by what is essentially a developmental approach, one which sees language as flowing from more immature or basic forms of communication. Although language is only one aspect of communication, it is a critical one in school where language use is often elaborated, where immature or non-adult forms are often not accepted. However, language is only one aspect of communication which appears less dominant and less important for the child in primary relationships, e.g., with his parents, his siblings and later his friends.

In this development there is a tendency to overlook the functions of language. We will go on to consider functional and notional approaches to language teaching and the way in which programs can be developed to encourage language use and different functions.

Mother/child interaction studies that have been done by many researchers have used specific settings to study child language acquisition. We can look at a continuum of settings in which language use has been sampled, first, the clinical setting. Mothers and their infants are brought into a clinical setting and may be requested to play with a set of toys provided for the purpose. Another type of research involves moving into the home and setting up a similar situation. To make the interaction more "natural", another study focused on lunchtime in the home. The limitations imposed by the need to videotape the interactions place certain constraints on the types of interactions that can be captured. Another type of study involved the use of audiotapes, usually from children wearing radio frequency microphones. Transcripts may be supplemented by a recorder who takes notes of the context in which the utterances were recorded. Clearly there are implications from these problems faced in mother/child interaction research for teachers who are interested in the natural language environment of the young child. This will certainly be the case for teachers who feel the need to recreate some aspects of a natural mother/child interaction setting in their programs - one might say particularly, but not only, at the pre-school level. At the syntactic level all mothers are found to use imperatives, at the functional level: to use attention-getters. This was particularly so for parents of hearing-impaired children. The question that needs to be asked is whether the difference for mothers of the hearing-impaired child is:

1. An artifact of the teaching setting.

2. A consequence of the type of intervention program attended.

3. A consequence of the diagnosis of the child as hearing-impaired and the mother's different reaction to the child because of it.

4. An artifact of the different kind of responses that the child has

with its mother due to its impoverished auditory awareness of the world around it.

To answer these questions, we need to consider what makes a difference. Consider first the difference in the effect on the interaction of the mother "set up" to play with her child with familiar toys, i.e., his own toys, compared to new toys. Consider also the types of toys as determinants of the type of interactions that might take place, for instance a doll's house and furniture. Isn't it the case that for adults furniture tends to have a set place? In what ways might playing with a doll's house and furniture be like playing with a train set for a father and son interaction? Of course, to some extent it will depend on the parent. It is interesting to reflect on what toys or other materials act like doll's furniture or train sets for teachers in the classroom. Do some types of materials lead teachers to be more directive or more ego involved in what might be achieved in a particular situation? More importantly, what effect might this have on the child's interactions, on his learning and on his perceptions of his role in particular settings? In an early intervention program described by Audrey Simmons-Martin, the teacher would arrive to work with the mother with a basket of things and they would work around the coffee table in a contrived play situation. In one study the researcher decided to videotape lunch. This setting was chosen because the plan was to set up a situation that was routine and natural. Mothers sit down routinely and play with their children, but are these natural spontaneous occasions the same in important respects to the kinds of situations contrived for research projects? This does not mean that it is not appropriate or relevant or interesting to study these contrived of situations. But it is important to qualify what you say about the results. What needs to be considered is the information we get from this kind of situation and the constraints that these place. What are the implications then of this kind of research for teachers?

Some common functions involved in interactions are direct and others indirect : consider a request for action such as "Put the toy down" or "Will you hold that, please", compared suggestions that function as requests such as, "Let's do it this way", or "Perhaps you could put it here". The mother is really saying, "Do it this way". Requests for permission: "Can I do this?" Choice Questions: "Do you want a cake or a biscuit", i.e., "I'm asking you to choose". Questions which seek information: "Where's the box?". Process questions involve extended descriptions, e.g., "How did it happen?" Checks such as "Hmm, what did you say?" have the very common function of avoiding communication breakdown. Attention-getting, such as: "Look!". Warnings such as "Be careful!". Acknowledgements: "Is it, really"'. These are some of the functions that have been used in analysis of mother/child interaction studies at this communicative level, at the function level rather than the form level.

There is another type of research to consider. We have looked at linguistic and communicative complexity. Now consider conceptual complexity. In a paper "Dialogue with pre-schoolers: A positively based system of assessment", Blank and Franklin, (1980) consider the utterance, "Good morning, sir", at different levels. Level 1 is to look purely at the form: The child has produced the utterance, "Good morning, sir". It is quite conceivable to think of teaching a parrot the same thing. So the parrot is able to reproduce the <u>form</u> of the utterance, i.e., "Good morning, sir". At Level 2, we look at function.

So at Level 2, the child is aware that the particular function that is performed by the production of the utterance "Good morning, sir" is a greeting to a person. Once the child is aware that "Good morning, sir", is a greeting, he has not only got form but he's also got some notion of its function. Now we get to the next Level, Level 3 and this is appropriateness. The child has the knowledge of the appropriate and meaningful context in which the purpose of greeting can be achieved with the utterance, "Good morning, sir". This involves "Good morning sir" as a greeting that is appropriate, 1. only during a certain part of the day; 2. only when the person greeted is a male adult (it is not said to children or to women); 3. only when there is a certain level of deference shown, so that the notion of deference and dominance are important; and 4. only when used at the most once per morning per person (which is a rule we tend not to think of intuitively). It is not appropriate to say good morning twice to the same person in the one morning! Consider the complexity of the phonological characteristics of different uses of "Good morning, sir", said with affection, to be insulting or sarcastic. We need to consider the complexity of the knowledge acquired in the appropriate use of such "simple" utterances! These paralinguistic aspects are not reproduced in print. As soon as you write down "Good morning, sir" it is neutral in terms of "tone of voice". (That is one of the criticisms one might have about Van Uden's "deposit of the child's language". You can't reproduce tone of voice by writing something down. You can't "deposit" a lot of what is understood in conversation.)

What Blank and Franklin (1980) suggest is that three-year-olds cope effectively with what she describes as Levels 1 and 2 but it is not until five or even seven years that they are able to cope effectively at the more advanced levels of cognitive and linguistic complexity. We need to ask if we expect more of hearing-impaired children than has yet been accomplished by hearing children. I often quote the example of a group of Down's Syndrome children in a Melbourne residential institution who could eat perfectly with a spoon and fork when they were four years old and my four-year-old couldn't eat with a spoon and fork! Hence authenticity and age appropriateness of the program in that sense has got to be looked at, and there are language parallels to that as well, i.e., we should not be expecting more (or less) than what would be appropriate in the ordinary course of development at that level. The key to assessing conceptual complexity is the degree of abstraction. We note the difference between labelling "dog", with referring to something like "international trade". We need to look at the development of the level of conceptual complexity along some sort of continuum.

The next key notion that Blank and Franklin (1980) introduce is "generalisation". One example of generalisation she uses is conservation. In conservation if none is added and none is taken away, the result must be the same. Once the child masters conservation he generalizes this to a variety of situations. Another issue that is raised about the area of conceptual complexity at the early stages, is the difficulty one faces once the child is past object permanency. There are often references to things that children at the pre-operational stage cannot do but few that describe what they can do. It seems that there hasn't been a lot done in this area. Blank and Franklin suggest that structuring an experience through language can be seen as occurring at different hierarchical levels. The terms "decontextualization" or "progressive distancing" are used. "Expanding Contexts" is another term that they use. This is an extremely important

notion. In the initial stages children talk about things in the "here and now", i.e., they are interested in talking about things that they are focussing on but as they become more competent the range of contexts that they refer to expands - they are able to talk about ever-expanding contexts, the "then and there". This involves decontextualisation or progressive distancing in which generalisation and abstraction are increasingly relevant. There is an increasing degree of distance, not just in space but in time as well, betwen the conceptual experience and the verbal symbolisation that the child applies to it. Blank and Franklin refer to four levels. The first level is moulding to the actual experience, the labelling of objects, e.g., "it's a ball"; recalling information, e.g., "That's a telephone"; expressing a desire, "I want that"; employing routines, tightly bound to attractive or familiar contexts like "Hi!"; imitating what someone else has said, and so on. She describes this whole process as utterances which represent words that are mapped onto salient conceptual experiences. So typically, at Level 1 the child is referring, labeling, indicating things in his immediate experience. At Level 2 the child selectively analyses experience, not mapping on to global salient impressions but reflecting a more discerning analysis, i.e., not stating the obvious, but using language for more discerning functions, e.g., to identify specific features of objects like colour, size, position or ownership. "It's big", "it's red", "it's on the floor", "It's mine". In the context of telling a story about a bird in the nest, the child can ask "Where is the nest?" If the child pointed to the picture and said, "That's the bird", that would be described as Level 1, but if the child looked at the picture and said, "Where's the nest?" that's Level 2. The child is selecting and isolating a specific feature and imposing his more focussed definition on the situation. Alternately he may combine several entities so as to create a unity, e.g., when shown a picture of a dog walking towards a bowl of food, the child says "The puppy's going to eat the meat", i.e., Level 2. The child is able to repute that meaning to that picture by combining the units, dog, movement and food into a coherent organised framework. "The dog's walking" would be Level 1, because the reference is to a moving entity (the dog). In response to another picture, "He's playing ball", there are two entities, an actor acting upon an object. So labelling of objects and actions occur before isolated attributes. Shown a girl rolling a ball, "The ball's rolling", "it's round", at Level 1, but "She's rolling the ball" at Level 2.

At Level 3, language is used to order experiences. Language now becomes more complex and seems to have a different relationship to cognition, i.e., to have a directive function, describing experience in terms of the absence of relevant expected impressions, imposing one's own structured expectations, recognising discrepancy between the structure and the observed information. The child feeling a cracked window might say, "it's not rough", i.e., Level 3. Because the window is cracked, you would expect it to feel rough, the child is commenting on a mismatch. Processes central to Level 3 may involve concepts of time and sequence, e.g., "He came here before he went to school", or exclusion, "All those are red except that one", or meta-linguistic skills, "I know what that means. It means . . ." or generalisation, "The knife and the scissors both cut". The child is learning to generalise, so he ignores the obvious at this level. He recognizes that there are things that we don't need to talk about.

This is important for hearing-impaired children, who at five or six

years of age, may have very delayed linguistic structures, but may not merely be wanting to name or refer to things within the immediate environment. Being sufficiently competent and conceptually able to see a mismatch, there will be different sorts of things they will want to do with their very limited language compared to a much younger child with similar linguistic development. This situation really compounds the problems: predisposing responses that normally draw the child to dominant stimuli are inhibited. In other words, he ignores the obvious, and secondly the material is reflected upon in such a way as to embed it in a framework that extends beyond the immediate perceptual information. The material is organised so that it seen in a context that is broader and/or different from the available information. Thus there is a very great mismatch between what the young hearing-impaired child can conceptualize, and hence want to speak about, and the linguistic skills he has to express those conceptions. For example, David Wood (in a personal communication to Des Power) tells the story of a hearing-impaired child who, in a "News Period", informed the teacher and class:

Child	:	Mummy TV.
Teacher	:	Mummy watched TV?
C	:	No, Mummy TV!
T	:	Mummy turned off the TV?
C	:	No, Mummy TV!!
T	:	Mummy bought a new TV?
C	:	No
		etc.,
		etc. ...

It eventually transpired that Mummy had dropped a cup of tea on the TV set, the liquid had got into the works, and the set exploded! Quite a mismatch between the child's narrative/cognitive capacities and his linguistic means of expressing them!

At Level 4, language is used to reason about experience. Typically at the age of five, utterances reflect the child's awareness of the way in which material is or might be altered to attain particular goals. This involves the establishment of relationships between causally related events. Take the notion of "fault". "Whose fault is it?" "Who caused it to happen?" The child relates the cause to the effect. In a situation where somebody is at fault very often someone is blamed. "It's not my fault" leads to the notion of justification. In a situation involving misdemeanour, a teacher's major concern is rarely the linguistic and communicative aspects of the interaction, she is more concerned about what happened and the consequences of certain actions. Very often these are situations where you can clearly see the child's competence in regard to conceptual complexity, linguistic complexity, and communicative complexity, e.g., in taking into account presupposition by deciding what is going to count as a justification. Until recently we haven't had good taxonomies of this kind of thing. We have tended to overlook the fact that if you leave out competence in the surface structure of Standard English, deaf children do very well in these kinds of situations: as long as we don't insist that they do it in Standard English. Because we haven't had good taxonomies of these features, we haven't thought of them sufficiently and so we have tended to think that deaf children are as poor in the pragmatic functions as they are at the surface structure level of the actual English form. Often they are not. I think we can find a basis here for a movement into form in teaching.

In a lot of situations in schools, e.g., in social studies lessons, children need to use the same kinds of cause-effect relationship skills that they have in communicative situations outside the school, e.g., in interpersonal relationships and in acquisition of knowledge about the world. Consider the example of a social studies lesson: a situation was set up where the children had to discuss the Saxon invasion of England: The Saxons arrive, they land, they have to set up a village. What would they have to do first? Children were organised into small groups and audio-taping was used to find out how the children discussed the problem. The researchers were able to plot how the children tackled the problem and how they came out with their list of things that would need to be done. They discovered that children used each other to expand their own knowledge. They built on each other's knowledge as the discussion developed. I have never seen groups of hearing-impaired children doing this kind of activity very well. I think that those kinds of interactions are quite difficult, but why?

Another piece of research was on a science experiment involving air pressure. We have all seen children operate with high levels of conceptual complexity. But in school situations, like social studies lessons do we see this competence? We do, however, frequently see children overcoming what seem to be similar problems in the games they play.

At Level 4 in the case of the dog moving towards a bowl of food, the child says, "He's going to eat the meat because he's hungry", the elements are not only organised into a framework but they are relating the organised conception of an idea that is relevant but has no perceptual basis, i.e., they are linking an idea from what they see to another idea which they deduce from the situation. This involves linking the ideas that have no obvious physical connection but only causally-based ones. It is important to understand the process that is going on here. Compare the relative ease of mastery of "who", "what", "when" and "where", with "why". The appropriate asking and answering of "why-" questions is late in development. Hearing-impaired children often use "because" when they are giving a reason for something, but in an interaction involving a cause and effect situation, particularly where you are dealing with something fairly abstract, children can get into great difficulty. Part of the complexity of "why"-questions is that the perceptual situation often offers few direct clues as to which element ought to be linked in order to establish a causal relationship. E.g. when the child says something like, "Why can't I leave my blocks on the floor?", there is nothing perceptually salient in the situation that provides the reasons why the child mightn't be able to leave his blocks on the floor.

Another Level 4 notion is prediction: "It will break if I drop it". Another is formulating solutions: "If you put two of them together, it will be long enough", and yet another offering explanation, "The baby can't lift that because it's too heavy", or providing justification, "I knew it would break because it was bending".

Now some of these kinds of notions hearing-impaired children can convey with two-word utterances, which they string together to make an explanation or a solution (e.g., providing justification or formulating solutions). When we look at transcripts of what children are saying we tend to only look at the syntax and the range of vocabulary that they are using, but not at the conceptual complexity of the ideas that the

child is conveying. In regard to the relationship between form and function, a command can be given in question form, a protest can be made in command form. It is not until seven years that children can flexibly manipulate the form of their utterances in order to achieve communicative goals. They do not realise that requests, orders, complaints, suggestions can each be made in a variety of forms. However, Blank and Franklin (1980) found that from an early age children can distinguish those utterances that require or demand a response. Further they respond appropriately seventy percent of the time. So it doesn't matter whether the mother uses the question form, but if she is questioning, using any of the forms, e.g., a statement form; what she says requires a response from the child, and the child will respond correctly seventy percent of the time. In attention-getting, for example, this seems to involve rising inflection and/or certain facial expressions. The mother is saying in effect : "I'm not just commenting, I'm expecting something from you". The question of whether or not the interaction requires a response is quite involved. In a conversation, speaker and listener switch with each turn. When the speaker makes a comment, there is no reason for the child to respond. But if the speaker makes an initiation that requires a response, then you can look at the appropriateness of the response.

Blank also looked at the appropriateness of the response in terms of whether it is relevant or not. Mum said, "Would you like to go to the beach again?" and the child replies, "Will we get in the car or walk?" The mother replies, "Do we have the car?" And the child says, "No". The mother continues, "What can we do?". "Walk. Walk to the beach". "Uh, huh, we always walk. But not to the beach. Just to the park. The park is closer, the beach is really far." What the mother is doing is initiating a dialogue and then demanding a response back from the child until she clarifies the whole thing. Obviously she is not concerned about form; she is concerned about conceptual clarification of facts. The beach is not within walking distance and she does not let that pass, she keeps to the topic and does not change it until she is able to make the point about the relation between the beach and the distance.

Many studies are based on a selected group of mothers and children. This can lead to difficulties if one wants to generalize. However, in a study which compared children in a child care centre over a five year period, which looked at the differences in language development in the different situations longitudinally, there appeared to be a need for a certain minimum level of interaction, but over that there were no dramatic effects. To use an analogy: if you pay $200 for a "Hi-Fi" and you get a certain quality of output, you can pay double that and you generally get something that's better. But if you pay $2000 you don't get something that's ten times better. What was suggested in this study was that there is a certain level of interaction that children require to develop linguistic competence but that there are diminishing returns.

We have to feel reassured and in turn reassure parents and teachers that language can develop in a whole variety of different contexts. One classic example cited in DeVilliers & DeVilliers (1979) is of a hearing child of deaf parents. The parents did not sign to the child because they knew he was hearing and they didn't believe that he would learn language that way. So until he went to nursery school, the only language that he got was from television. However, within 18 months he had caught up almost age-for-age. It seems that some children can

acquire language in quite impoverished conditions. So we need to be aware that an aim for optimum conditions for each child all the time is unrealistic. However, there does seem to be a minimum level of input and a certain quality of input that's necessary if children are to develop language relatively normally. It seems that our major task as teachers of communication to hearing-impaired children is to provide at least that minimum level and quality of input, and I believe that the kinds of discussions we provide in this Volume go a long way towards providing us with both the conceptual and methodological tools to do so.

In order to do this more effectively we need to continually question everyday practices in schools to ensure that the goal is achieved of having children participate in a wider variety of educational communication situations, feeling confident that they can communicate appropriately. To do this we need to be aware of the child's repertoire of communicative strategies in a variety of social situations and in turn to be aware of the kinds of demands involved in everyday situations. In classrooms we need a greater understanding of the settings which are most appropriate to bridge any gap between the child's competence and his access to social and intellectual goals.

FUNCTIONAL-NOTIONAL APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED PUPILS

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A. Definition and description of features.

A "Functional-Notional" approach to language learning aims at developing a second language learner's communicative competence. Such an approach presents the learner with social contexts within which he/she is required to select socially appropriate linguistic forms from a set of options to convey his/her intended meaning.

The term "function" refers to the uses of language. Language has many varied uses and before the learner is able to handle the linguistic forms he/she must have some cognitive awareness of what he/she wishes to communicate. The cognitive element of language is referred to as the "notion". "Notion" is the thought behind the language or the way in which an individual perceives his/her world. When using language the communicator is encoding his/her thought into words. Halliday (1973) refers to this as the "meaning potential" of language and further defines it as the "ideonotional" function of language. He also suggests that the language user should become aware of all the sets of options and alternatives in meaning as well as the specific original thought or notion.

The focus of such an approach to language learning is on the relationship between the use to which language is put, the linguistic form or structure and all the possibilities of meaning. The linguistic form is determined by the social context in which the interaction between the communicator and communicant occurs and the mode of this communication, i.e., the spoken word (oral discourse) or the written word (written discourse). There is no focus on the development of structure and it is pre-supposed to some extent that the learner brings a certain degree of linguistic competence gained in his/her mother tongue to the second language learning situation. Essentially, the second language learner has acquired the language system of his/her mother tongue and is able to manipulate this system as Halliday (1973) describes:

> He has just one and the same grammar, which is called on in different ways and of which now one part is emphasised and now another.

B. Features of a "functional-notional" syllabus.

The syllabus of a "functional-notional" approach to second language learning is made up of "real-life" situations and "authentic" language.

The "real-life" situations are determined by the needs of the learner and it is the teacher's task to determine those situations

which are or will be of common occurrence in the learner's day-to-day living.

Once the situation or social context has been decided upon, the task at hand is to determine the "purpose" or function language will have within this context. The linguistic form of the language used will be determined by both the function/s or purpose/s and the social context. In endeavouring to gain "authenticity" in the linguistic form, it is essential that the learner be presented with all the valid options so that a selection can be made. At some future stage it will also be necessary to provide an opportunity for the learner to be faced with a similar situation or context so that this process of selection can be practised once again. It is only by realizing what is appropriate and what is inappropriate that the learner is going to become a competent communicator in the second language system.

Because of the nature of the "real-life" context a great deal of emphasis is placed on role play. This interaction may occur between two people or a group. The second language learner is able to exercise his/her creativity within the range of options by having the opportunity to exchange roles and put his/her own ideas to work.

As well as the active participation of "role playing" it is possible to include more passive learning processes. For example the second language learner may view a videotape or listen to an audiotape and then complete activities such as those outlined in Appendix A. Other possibilities include the preparation of information from brochures, timetables, flow charts and statistical data. All of these facilitate a certain degree of "authenticity" in the learning situation and require the learner to select appropriate language for a special or specific purpose.

In evaluating the effectiveness of such an approach the teacher is constantly observing the learner's ability to monitor and self-correct. This necessitates to a great degree interaction with native speakers, for it is only by "trying out" the linguistic forms that the learner will discover when there is communication breakdown due to either socially inappropriate language or incorrect syntactical form.

C. Materials for use in a "functional-notional" approach.

It is possible to divide material into three categories : visuals, textual, and aural. However, it is important to keep in mind the authenticity of the materials. There are many benefits to be gained from using authentic materials and one of these benefits is the ability to convey information to the second language learner. A non-native speaker needs to be able to amass as many clues as possible to assist his/her understanding of what is likely to be said in a particular context. "Prediction" and "supposition" are two skills which a second language learner needs to develop.

"Authentic" visuals are able to bring characters and social contexts to life and give the learner cultural and social-cultural information about life. They can provide a living context for the

language to occur. These may be photographic, illustrative, graphic or typographic.

"Authentic" listening materials can convey the spontaneous language of native speakers and thereby increase learner interest. The style, volume, rate and turn-taking can provide the learner with an opportunity to practise his/her comprehension of native speakers. However, there are some pitfalls which need to be avoided. Two of these are the number of speakers presented at any one time; not too much dialectial variant and the "real" as opposed to the "slow colloquial" speech.

"Authentic" textual materials may include posters which convey visual messages, recipes, brochures, advertisements, e.g., "Positions Vacant", "Births", etc., claim forms, magazine serials, timetables.

D. Implications for Hearing-Impaired Students.

There are three ways in which such an approach to second language learning may be adapted and used to facilitate greater communicative competence in hearing-impaired students

The first is the implementation of such an approach as is used by English as a Second Language learners (E.S.L.). In order for this to be successful hearing-impaired students would need to have already attained a degree of competence in the use of Standard English. At times these students may experience some difficulty in conveying their meaning or intent and therefore be either mis-understood or socially embarrassed. For these types of students a "functional-notional" approach may be useful in widening their linguistic options and enriching their understanding of dual meanings and the like (Appendix D).

The second way in which use may be made of such an approach is in providing language for a special or specific purpose. The students who would most likely benefit from this specific teaching would have a lesser degree of competence in the use of Standard English but would possess some awareness that the language has a level of social appropriateness and inappropriateness. The linguistic options presented to these students would be less broad than in the previous example, although at some future time these horizons may be widened as understanding and usage grows.

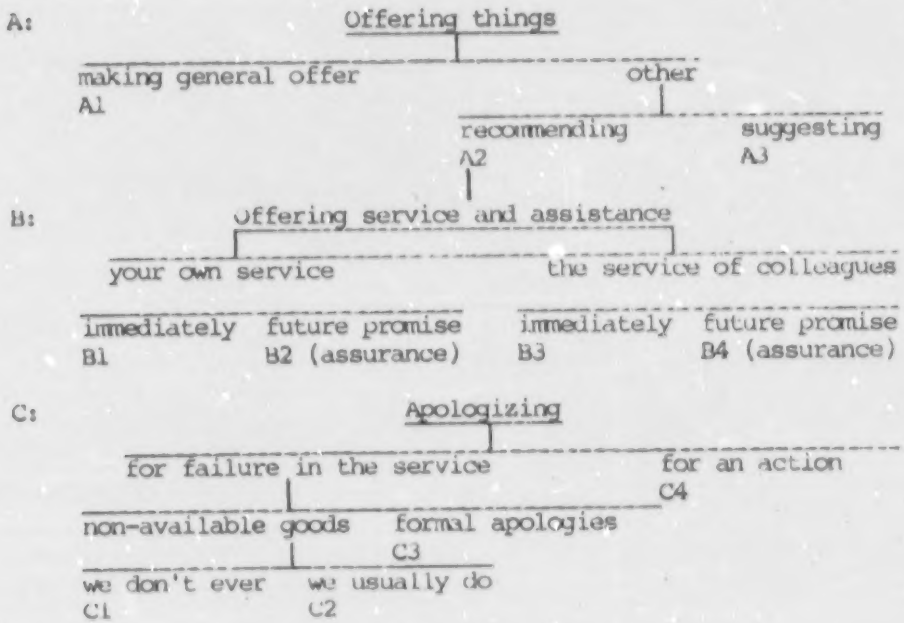
The third type of students which may benefit from an adaption of this approach are the ones who has got a very low level of competence in the use of Standard English. Often this type of students is guilty of offending non-hearing-impaired persons by using totally inappropriate linguistic forms. Generally these students are oblivious to the fact that they have caused some social blunder and in turn mis-interpret the reaction of the listener. For this group the "functional-notional" approach could be adapted to provide them with a specific learning experience as to why some things are never said and provide them with a more socially acceptable means of conveying their intention. In these ways (and others), hearing-impaired pupils may gradually be "enculturated" into the language and social usages of the hearing community so that they may more easily take their place in it.

APPENDIX A

The following unit was devised to train Tunis Airlines Hostesses in handling liquor sales on aircraft. This is an example of a functional approach to language teaching but is also an example of English for Special Purposes. There are a number of contexts in which students are required to offer things. How can this example be used as a model for developing a unit based on other contexts, e.g., A Birthday Party, A Dinner Party, Attending to a Customer in a Clothing Shop?

UNIT TWO : Functions, hostess based

Summary of the important functions in SETTLING DOWN



Functional exponents for A1

Making a general offer of drinks

L1: Would you like anything to drink?
What are you going to have?
And what about you, madam?

L2: Anything to drink, sir?
Would you like anything from the bar?

L3: And for you, madam?

Functional exponents for A2

Recommending

L1: Perhaps I can recommend a special Tunisian drink ...
Boukha - it's made from figs. It's a liquor.

L3: Well, we have both but I think you'd like the red.

Functional exponents for A2

Suggesting : drinks and alternative drinks

L1: Perhaps the little girl would like a coca cola?

L2: Would you like Bell's instead?
Perhaps you would prefer Ballantyne's or Johnnie Walker's?
Or would you rather have Vat 69?

L3: But perhaps you would like something else - a sweet wine?

from Abbs & Whitney, "First Flight for Tunis Airways".

UNIT TWO : Role Play Cues

Using Functions in Contextualized Role Play - Discourse Chains

Choosing drinks

Make a general offer of drinks
Express general interest
Describe whole range i.e., alcoholic/soft
Enquire about alcoholic drinks
Describe general types of alcoholic drinks e.g., whisky,, gin
Choose and name one type of alcoholic drink e.g., beer, wine, gin.
Name and offer the brands you have
Choose one of the offered brands.
Offer the drink, with any appropriate accompaniments, e.g., gin + tonic/ice/lemon
Accept. Give the hostess one pound sterling
Name the price of the drink, state the change, and give to passenger
Thank very politely
Response to polite thanks
Close

from "English for Special Purposes" by Abbs

APPENDIX B

ACTIVITIES WHICH ARE USEFUL IN FUNCTIONAL APPROACHES

THEME - BUYING A CAR

Write the MAKE and MODEL of these cars.

1. This car was fully tested in July '81.
   It has got four doors.
   It costs $7270 for the manual and $7610 for the automatic.
   It is a _____ _____.

2. This car was road tested in April '82.
   It has got three doors.
   It costs $6749 for the manual and $6949 for the automatic.
   It is a _____ _____.

3. This car was fully tested in June '81.
   It has got four doors.
   It costs $11,195 for the manual and $11,905 for the automatic.
   It is a _____ _____.

Finish this chart.

MAKE & MODEL	No of doors	Fuel Consumption	Manual Price	Automatic Price
Alfasud Sprint	2			
Daimler Sovereign				46,400
Jaguar XJ6 Series 3				
Mercedes Benz		9.0		

NOW:

Answer these questions. / Finish these sentences.

1. Which car has got the highest fuel consumption?

2. Which car has got the lowest price for the automatic?

3. The _____ has got the lowest number of doors?

4. The _____ is the most expensive automatic.

5. The _____ and the _____ only have automatic models.

6. The _____ has both an automatic and a manual model.

Pretend you are a car salesman.
Answer these questions.

1. My name is Tom Wilson.
   I have got $7,700.
   I want a sports car with three doors.
   I want a car with low fuel consumption.
   Which one should I buy?
   You should buy a _____.

THEME - THE DAILY PAPER

(These exercises would follow reading of the "Births" column of a local daily paper.)

Sample exercises.

Write True or Not True/False.

1. Mr & Mrs Madden have got a baby son. _____.
2. Mr Noack's first name is John. _____.
3. Mr & Mrs Egan's baby was born on 10th April. _____.
4. Mr & Mrs Hedrick's baby was born at the Mitchan Private Hospital. _____.
5. Mr & Mrs Taunt's baby is a boy. _____.

Finish these sentences. Choose the best word/s.

1. Mr & Mrs George's baby weights _____.
2. Lucy Rose Madden was born on _____.
3. Lyn is Mrs Gordon's first name and _____ is Mr Duncan's first name.
4. Matthew Rupert has got a sister. Her name is _____.

Finish these sentences.

1. Mr & Mrs Duncan's baby is called _____ _____.
2. Abram Dirk de Bruyn was born on _____ _____.
3. Monique Debra Pontin was born at the _____ hospital.
4. Mr Egan's first name is _____.
5. Mrs Yeates' maiden name was _____.

Answer these questions.

1. What was Mrs Reid's surname before she got married?
2. When was Mr & Mrs Hayball's baby born?
3. Was the Georges' baby a boy or a girl?
4. Where was the Noack baby born?
5. Has Timothy Colin Turner got any brothers and sisters?
6. Write the name of Mrs Foreman's doctor.

Write the list of ingredients.

DUMPLINGS:

Sift 4 oz of self-raising flour and a pinch of salt. Rub 1 oz of butter into the flour and add 1 beaten egg and 3 ox of milk. Mix together. Roll into small balls and put into 4 tblsp of Golden Syrup. Boil for 20 minutes.

SCONES :

4 oz. S.R. Flour a pinch of salt
2 oz. butter
1 oz. milk

Write what you will do.

First .....
Then .....
After that .....
Cook for .....

THEME - - - - - - - - - - - ENVIRONMENT

TOPICS	Traffic	City Life	Housing problems	Pollution and noise
Settings	on the bus on the tube rush hours commuters	at work shopping time off town planning	looking for a house renting a flat waiting for a council-house	Smog car exhausts polluted beaches Concords

TEXT VARIETIES : WRITTEN - SPOKEN - GRAPHIC

Speech Functions	giving warnings giving & asking expressing preference-comparisons	describing suggesting directing	extracting information applying for accommodation	describing prescribing proscribing

Structures	Imperatives Wh-questions Modals Comparatives	Why don't you? What/how about? Simple present It looks as if It seems	Present progressive Simple past Adverbial clause	Futurity Lexical items

DIALOGUES - TIMETABLES - SONGS - SIGN POSTS - CHARTS - NOTICES - DIAGRAMS - ROAD MAPS - PRICE LISTS - APPLICATION FORMS - NEWS ITEMS - PAMPHLETS

ROLE PLAYING - SINGING - FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS - GAMES - DRILLING - CREATIVE WORK - DIAGRAMS, POSTERS, FORM FILLING - NOTE TAKING - QUESTIONNAIRES - CHART READING

THEME —— ENVIRONMENT (for seniors)

TOPIC	Housing	
SITUATION	Selling a house	Looking for a house
ACTIVITIES	Writing agency advertisements Formulating application forms - telephoning - Showing a house	Reading advertisements Filling application forms Visiting a house
SPEECH FUNCTIONS	Greeting Inquiring about : intention preference agreement/disagreement Advising others to do something	Introducing oneself Expressing : likes and dislikes needs and wants Expressing : surprise appreciation Expressing : capability
STRUCTURES	Do/don't you like? Don't you think so? Would you like? Are you going to? You should/I can recommend	This is very nice/comfortable I like .. very much/I don't like I love/hate It's very expensive/cheap How nice! I can/I cannot/I'm afraid I cannot
TEXT VARIETIES	Agency) Newspaper) Ads Shops)	Application forms, mortgage leaflets House plans, photographs with price quotation, etc.

APPENDIX C

IMPLICATIONS FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED STUDENTS

1. Development of Activities for a Work Experience Theme and Its Associated Language Functions.

2. Communicative skills development topics arising from pupil comments.

Work Experience in Local Supermarket

Functions of Language

To attract attention	To respond to a greeting/call
To seek information	To confirm information
To give information	To acknowledge, accept, refuse

Style of Language

A Formal B Informal

A Store manager, supervisor
B Workmate

Function:

Attracting Attention - Greeting
- Call

Responding to Greeting

Linguistic Options:

Good morning Mr/Mrs etc.	Good morning.
Hello x. How are you?	How are you?
Hi.	Well thank you.
Nice day - isn't it?	Good-day.
Cold morning	Yes it is.
Lousy weather -	Not bad.

Excuse me Mr/Mrs	Yes.
can you help me	Did you want me...
Mr/Mrs X .... have you got a minute?	Can I help you ...
May I speak to you ...	Just a moment please.

Non-Linguistic:

Wave of hand/Nod head

Function:	Seek information	Check Inquire action Inquire intention	Acknowledge

Linguistic Options:	
Excuse me (see previous page)	Thanks for your help.
Can you help me	I understand now.
I'm not too sure about	So I should ....
Could you tell me where	If I do that it will be O.K. ....
Should I	I appreciate your help.
Did you say	Thanks.
Would it be O.K.	
Is it alright if	
Did you mean I	
Is this what you meant?	

Learning Situation: Role play actual possible sequence which may occur during work experience round. e.g., stacking shelves
stock-taking
re-locating materials
price-labelling goods

Hearing Impaired Student's Utterance: You look normal today. You look fat with jeans.

List of Possible Interpretations:

- I think you look lovely/good, today.
- You look slimmer in a dress.
- I think you look fat, especially in jeans.
- Sometimes you look fat.
- I like it when you wear a dress.
- I like that dress.
- etc...

Student's Intent: ("Notion")

- You look better in a dress.
- You look nice.
- I don't like you in jeans because they make you look fat.

(gained after questioning)

Functions of Language: To exchange an opinion, to criticise, to judge, to compliment.

Style of Language: Spontaneous comment

Socially Appropriate Linguistic Options:

You look _ great today / _ lovely / _ nice	I like you in that dress. / I think dresses are nicer than jeans.
That's a nice dress. / You look marvellous.	I like you / You look nice _ in dresses / etc....

Student A : Made this comment to a female staff member as part of a morning greeting.

Hearing Impaired Student's Utterance:	You have nothing father?		
Student's Intent: (Notion)	Has your father died? Do you have a father? What happened to your father	I'm sorry for you	(gained after detailed questioning)
Function of Language:	To question, to express sympathy		
More Socially Appropriate Linguistic Options:	X told me about your father.		
	I'm sorry to hear about your father.	Sorry about your news.	
	I'm sorry about your rather.		
	How are you feeling?	Are you feeling better	

Student B : Statement to staff member on return after absence. Had been informed of staff member's bereavement.

Further Situations:

Practice in expressing opinions, criticism, compliments in 'spontaneous' style in relation to a variety of contents:
Hairstyles Written Presentations (students) Clothing (Male Female)
New Car Displays (prepared by staff in classrooms, etc.) Jewellery etc.

COMMENTS ON THE TATE ORAL ENGLISH PROGRAM

by

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In any evaluation of language teaching programs, we believe it is essential that two major questions be considered: what is to be taught (the content of the program), and how this content is to be taught (the pedagogical principles associated with the delivery of the program to the learner). We have some concerns with the Oral English program of Gloria Tate (1971) on both these counts.

What is to be taught concerns us at two levels: theoretical and practical. At the theoretical level we believe that the approach to what is learned when a language is known espoused by Tate, i.e., that language is a set of "habits", essentially "learned by heart" by repetition and drill (albeit in "meaningful" situations) is not supported by modern theory and research. This essentially "structuralist/behaviourist" notion has been criticized by many writers, beginning with Chomsky (1959), who have pointed out that what is learned are not habits, but a limited set of 'rules" fr[illegible] which sentences are created by the user. These have considerably different cognitive status from habits, in that they are inductive generalisations from the child's language environment, arrived at by a process of successive approximations to the correct form.

This model of Tate's about what language is leads to her pedagogy of drill in meaningful situations. We note that Tate drills may be seen as like the "singing" of multiplication tables to learn them by rote. These routines are always empty unless preceded by and based upon understanding for use, particularly in applied concrete situations. Otherwise, the learning of Tate materials would be just another ritual; another algebra of "baked sentences" (Van Uden, 1978) without meaning or context outside the setting in which they are learned, and as a result of which their generalisability to settings outside the classroom may be very limited (Power, 1981).

In this context, careful attention needs to be paid to ensure that meaning is to the fore during Tate lessons ("Teaching and drilling are usually in situations, so that every sentence has real meaning [Tate, 1971, p.6]".) "Meaning" in this sense appears to be limited to knowing the implications of the structural content of a sentence, certainly an element of "linguistic meaning", but not the only, or even perhaps the most important element of that meaning. "Linguistic meaning" is not only the meaning of the form/content of a sentence, but also its meaning in use: when the sentence should be used, and why it should be used.

Tate lessons are taught because of a perceived "need to know", so in a sense it appears to us that as Tate lessons are taught out of a context of authentic need to use, there is a possibility that hearing-impaired pupils may not attain to these latter "meanings" and will not achieve functional control of language use.

In this area, we should note that there are significant differences between the learner of English as a Second Language (for whom the Tate program was originally designed) and hearing-impaired pupils. Certainly ESL learners and hearing-impaired pupils share some common characteristics, but there is a crucial difference, particularly as far as young hearing-impaired pupils are concerned, in that the ESL learner already has a native tongue that he can use for his everyday needs for functional language. He does not need to learn these functions anew: only how functions are coded in English. This may not be true for the young hearing-impaired child who often will have a rather limited language for functional needs, whatever his (often excellent) non-verbal functional skills may be. This makes it even more crucial that deaf children are provided with contexts in which language can be learned in use in authentic settings: a state of affairs that we are not convinced is necessarily inherent in Tate lessons: indeed too great a concentration on Tate lessons would deny the hearing-impaired pupil access to language forms that he requires now to express his functional needs. Hence the amount of time spent in this kind of specific teaching activity is quite crucial, and should not "take over" the language program. In passing, we note that there is a tendency among some Tate proponents to speak of it as "the ESL approach". This is, of course, not true. It is one of a number of competing approaches and has a "structuralist" approach which conflicts with "functional/notional curriculum" approaches (Breen and Candlin, 1980; Ingram, 1979). Our own inclinations are in this latter direction, and our concerns with Tate come from within that framework.

Within such a functional/notional framework communication is seen as primary (Jakobovits and Gordon, 1974), with emphasis on the child being able to understand the (linguistically expressed) needs of others, with correct syntax not being a major concern early on. Hence use of Tate or similar programs with hearing-impaired preschool children or such children in the early stages of language development is, we believe, completely contraindicated. At this age need to use must be the sole criterion for language for young hearing-impaired children (Power and Hollingshead, 1977).

All these are theoretical considerations, but we also have some concerns at the level of application of the program.

For instance, although the Tate sequence of structures is intuitively attractive for specific teaching situations as regards difficulty levels, it is unlikely to be the "natural" one - which is usually developed from needs in interaction with the environment. Hence a more flexible approach to the order of lessons laid down is probably more appropriate. We believe there is a strong case for consultation regarding the selection or sequencing of lessons from within the program to met the immediately perceived needs of pupils.

We are of the opinion that a greater amount of repetition of items may be necessary for deaf pupils than is normal in the "revision plus new item" format of the program. This could very easily lead to boredom and negativism among pupils and hence there is a great strain upon teachers' ingenuity and resources to ensure that lessons are both meaningful and motivating.

At a linguistic level, we believe that there are certain limitations in the Tate sequence, and that some aspects are not entirely

developed, for example, intra-phrase structures, and teachers may find that other systems deal better with these (and other) aspects of language (e.g., Crystal, Fletcher and Garman, 1976; Tyack and Gottsleben, 1977; among others).

It would therefore be of great concern if schools embraced the Tate scheme as the language program. It would also be a major concern if the Tate scheme were to become an empty performance of "display language", no better than any of its constructivist predecessors. This would particularly be so in places where the Tate program became virtually the whole language program. We have noted that the Tate program is essentially oriented towards teaching the forms of English, and while other subject areas can be utilized for language teaching, it would appear that there is a tendency for the teaching of form to take over content subjects, to the consequent deterioration of learning necessary in these subjects and the swamping of content learning by that of linguistic form, which, in those subjects, should be of secondary concern (Power and Hollingshead, 1977).

We detail these concerns because we believe the issues raised need to be addressed by all teachers of the hearing-impaired using or intending to use the Tate scheme or any other specific language teaching methods. We have emphasised the central importance of the functional use of language in curricula for hearing-impaired pupils rather than the traditional insistence on correct form from the beginning (a failing the Tate program shares), but this is not to say that correct form is not an important goal and useful for hearing-impaired pupils. It obviously is, and we believe the Tate program has much to contribute in this respect, but only after the substantive use of language forms has been introduced in a context of authentic use (Power, 1981a,b). It seems to us therefore that a valid use of the Tate program may be its flexible use as a "fastener" of forms, the substantive use of which has already been demonstrated to be within the pupil's competence, but where some deviancies of form from the expected standard are still apparent. This use of Tate would appear to be beneficial, and should be explored further. It has also been suggested to us that the Tate program content and techniques can be adopted to meet the need for more authenticity of context and use, thus mitigating many of the concerns we have about its use, (Hollingshead, personal communication, September, 1980), and this notion should also be further explored.

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